

FUNDAMENTAL AND ADULT EDUCATION

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EDITORIAL

This number of the Bulletin is particularly concerned with the training of workers for various services of community development. It has been prepared in co-operation with the United Nations and a number of its Specialized Agencies, and represents, therefore, a modest effort at co-ordination in this field of United Nations activity.

The problem of co-ordination is never far from the minds of those engaged in community development work. For the villager, the tribesman or the peasant farmer agriculture, health and education, home economics, crafts and marketing are but strands in the closely woven fabric of his daily life. The social and technical services, however, which are set up to assist him in giving a richer design to this fabric are provided by separate departments of government, by research institutes and teacher training colleges, co-operative societies and banks and other such official and unofficial bodies. One of the most difficult tasks in development work is to ensure that these services are brought to bear with efficiency and economy and the maximum of mutual support.

If the problem perplexes the departments and ministries of a single government, it is even more complex in the work of the United Nations and its Specialized Agencies, whose function it is to assist more than 70 governments in their varied schemes of economic and social development. The difficulty arises in part from the essential inter-dependence of services offered by different Agencies, but still more from the fact that the Agencies must operate from headquarters and regional offices hundreds and often thousands of miles apart, with budgets and programmes established at different times and for different periods by different governing bodies. The machinery by which this co-ordination is achieved, though necessarily increasing in complexity, is nevertheless gaining in efficiency.

Nowhere is co-ordination more important than in the training of field workers for development services, where the training itself should emphasize the interrelation of these services. For example, the agricultural extension worker can learn how to use a mobile audio-visual unit of the Ministry of Education to bring his ideas to the people, the adult literacy teacher to make his class a forum for discussion of local problems by calling in his colleagues from departments of agriculture or health, or the vaccination team can learn to prepare the ground by advance propaganda through the schools.

This co-ordination is equally important because certain essential skills are necessary for many types of field workers in community development. One such skill is the communication of ideas to illiterate and semi-literate adults, and it is here that fundamental education comes into its own.

During the past nine months the United Nations and four of its Specialized Agencies

have undertaken a joint appraisal of the work of the two regional fundamental education centres in Latin America and the Arab States. The inter-agency 'workshop' which opened the appraisal had this to say in its report:

'In support of the field workers in the communities, fundamental education, as an educational arm of social and economic development, has important technical services to provide. These may also be made available to field workers in other services operating in illiterate or largely illiterate communities, e.g. community development, agricultural extension, environmental sanitation or rural industrialization.

'These technical services in fundamental education may be classified as: experimental study and technical information on fundamental education methods; training in fundamental education methods (including social science techniques); producing educational materials.'

While Unesco's fundamental education centres are endeavouring to provide these services in two regions, the UN and Specialized Agencies concerned are working together to assist governments in co-ordination and improving their national training plans. This number of the Bulletin therefore brings together some first-hand accounts of the training of field workers contributed by individuals engaged in this work under different agencies and in different parts of the world.

SOME CRITERIA FOR THE EVALUATION OF THE TRAINING OF EXTENSION WORKERS IN FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

T. R. BATTEN

When representatives of the countries of South-East Asia met at Madras to discuss the operation of various foreign aid programmes their attitude was critical.¹ They felt that the programme had been ineffective, if not positively harmful, because they had been operated by 'experts more familiar with techniques than sensitive to situations', and mainly interested in getting measurable results quickly. Foreign experts who felt they knew the answers before they got there, they said, were no use at all.

Any expert is liable to produce this kind of reaction unless he has been trained to work *with* people rather than *for* them. He is valued in so far as he contributes technical knowledge which helps people to find answers to their problems, rejected in so far as he tries to impose on them his solutions to their problems. This is because most problems are complex and affect many aspects of people's lives. The expert is a specialist; he tends to consider all problems from one viewpoint. This is why people so often reject the technical solutions provided by the expert.

Community development and fundamental education programmes in the villages also require 'experts' in health, agriculture, forestry, veterinary science and other professions, usually officials from government departments. Like the foreign experts criticized at Madras, they have been trained in Western techniques, they have specialist knowledge and specialist interests, and they are interested in getting measurable results quickly. If they try to 'sell' the programme of a specific agency they too may appear as strangers claiming to know the answers to local problems without knowing, or needing to know, the viewpoint of local people. When this happens, they are likely to be faced with a local community reaction of the same kind as the national reaction to the foreign technical aid experts, and their programmes may be just as ineffective.

This is a difficulty which faces many specialist technical agencies and it deserves greater attention than it has usually been given. Their workers need more than a purely technical training; they must be trained to work with people. It is unrealistic to expect workers to pick up 'on the job' the techniques of working with people.

What can or should be the aims and content of this training? Perhaps we can best approach this question by considering what are the desirable qualities and attributes of the good extension worker, and how far and by what methods these qualities and attributes can be developed by training.

The good extension worker must clearly be a good teacher and demonstrator. He must be able to convey clearly and understandably to adults the knowledge, ideas and skills he thinks they need. Since people learn better by seeing and by hearing, he must be able to use all kinds of visual aids, both to arouse interest in what he has to teach and to explain and demonstrate the content of his teaching. He also needs skill in working with groups. In the small group people can ask questions more freely, express their doubts, and discuss the extension worker's ideas among themselves. This is why many people learn best in a small group. Also group learning, more often than individual learning, leads to action. People act on a new idea more confidently together than alone. They like to feel that they have the approval of their neighbours. Last, but by no means least, the good extension worker must be able to establish a friendly relationship with people. Adults cannot be forced to learn, and they will learn most easily from those they like and trust. Thus the attitude and behaviour of the extension

1. Roger Wilson, 'Assembly in Madras', *Social Service* (London), Spring, 1953.

worker among the people always greatly affects the success or failure of his work.

By themselves, however, the qualities and skills I have listed above are not enough. The worker must also be teaching the right things. Many specialist extension agencies have from time to time based their programmes on wrong assumptions or inadequate knowledge and the best worker will fail if he is given a programme of this kind. A few examples will make this clear.

One common assumption is that peasants everywhere want heavier yields and should therefore welcome new strains of heavier yielding seed. In general this is true, but heavier yield is only one of many factors that affect the peasant's choice. A new, heavy-yielding strain of hybrid maize was rejected by peasant farmers in New Mexico because it had a different taste when made into their staple food,¹ and in India because it took so long to ripen that the people could no longer double-crop their land. Similarly, wheat strains improved for higher yield were rejected in parts of India because they tasted 'flat' when made into bread, were more difficult to grind into flour, and harder to knead and bake. Moreover, the straw was not good for fodder, or for thatching, or for fuel.² In all these cases the villagers recognized the one advantage of the change, but rejected it because of disadvantages the agency had overlooked.

Health extension work provides many examples of the same kind. Health agencies have tried and failed to get people to install latrines in their houses because the morning visit to the fields was the only chance the purdah women had for gossiping among themselves.³ They have tried and failed to get 'seat' privies accepted by people who prefer to squat, and roofed privies by people who prefer the open air.⁴

A specialist agency falls into errors of this kind when it teaches its own specific ideas of what the people ought to do. It can avoid such errors by recognizing its need to learn as well as teach. Real and effective solutions to community problems, as distinct from technical and often unacceptable proposals, are reached through a two-way learning and teaching process between the agency worker and the community, and they are best reached in the community itself.

Training in extension work is therefore needed at two levels. Officers responsible for programme planning need it as well as the field workers.

Provided that they have had a good deal of field experience, the more senior officers can, without great expense, be quickly helped to become aware of the wide variety of local factors they should take into account, and aware too that these factors may vary even between neighbouring communities. One way of doing this is to use agency conferences to present small groups of officers with problems to discuss. Each problem should deal with one instance of extension work in one small community and should be based on fact. Officers are told that it has failed, and they are asked to discuss among themselves the possible reasons why. The purpose of the exercise is to encourage the officers to think about *people* rather than the technicalities of the programme, and to gain from experience in their understanding of people. It is useful at the end of the small group discussions to bring all the groups together to consider their findings. Another method is to brief officers about a project and ask them to discuss, first in small groups and then together, the various factors they would consider in presenting this project to the people.

Such training which involves a minimum of straight teaching is all the more effective because it encourages officers to learn from their own experience with people. They teach each other, and in so doing open up for themselves new perspectives beyond the scope of their specialized professional training. They become convinced of the need to

1. Anacleto Apodaca, 'Corn and custom', E. H. Spicer, ed., *Human Problems in Technological Change*, New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1952, pp. 35-9.

2. D. G. Mendelbaum, 'Planning and Social Change in India', *Human Organisation* (New York), Vol. XII, No. 3.

3. Gladys Rutherford, quoted in *Community Development Bulletin* (London), Vol. VI, No. 3, p. 59.

4. G. M. Foster, 'Relationships between Theoretical and Applied Anthropology: a Public Health Program Analysis', *Human Organisation* (New York), Vol. XI, No. 3, pp. 12-15.

broaden their professional knowledge with a more thorough knowledge of the values, habits and customs of the people.

In training of this kind the senior officers who plan the agency programmes, control the training of the field workers and supervise them in their work. Unless these officers are aware of their need to learn as well as teach, it is unlikely that they will be able to provide their field workers with proper training or good direction.

I do not propose to discuss in detail the content of the knowledge needed by the extension worker. During his pre-service training, in addition to the technical knowledge and skills in which his agency specializes, he should also be trained for extension work; for example, how to teach adults, how to work with groups. He might study community organization and the values and customs of the people; he may be given instruction in the preparation and use of models, flannelgraphs, filmstrips, films, live demonstrations, puppets and plays. Lectures and demonstrations and actual practice will all form part of the training.

The extension worker will then be only at the beginning of his real training, however. This pre-service training can give him only preliminary knowledge and skills which, if he wishes, he can extend and develop as he gains experience in the field. This will depend partly on the worker's attitude to his agency and its policies, and partly on his attitude to and sympathy with the people among whom he works. Knowledge and skill apart, his value as a field worker will depend on these two things.

Most extension agencies are aware that this attitude is the key factor, and try to take it into account in selecting staff, but it is seldom the deciding factor. Rural extension work is often unpopular with the kind of educated people the agencies want, and if applicants have the required academic standard and are not obviously unsuitable, most agencies will accept them without worrying too much about their attitude to people.¹ Thus extension workers may or may not have the desired attitudes at the time of their selection and it is relevant to inquire how, if at all, these can be developed. This is the most important, and also the most neglected aspect of training.

In training of this kind the relationship the agency's senior officers establish with their workers is of first importance. If they regard the workers as subordinates trained and paid to receive and carry out orders, the workers will work for money or because they are hoping for promotion, but they will not necessarily be interested in the policy they are paid to carry out, convinced that it is good, and eager for it to succeed. They may work for many years without ever feeling personally involved. This helps to explain why, on retirement, an extension worker may settle down in his own village, live as his own people do, and neglect utterly all the lessons he has been teaching for years.

Field workers become more interested and involved in the work they do if they have a real share of responsibility for the work done—planning it as well as carrying it out. The attitude of the worker to his agency is, in fact, the reflection of the attitude of the senior officers of the agency towards him. This was the principle on which Alec Dickson trained his workers in the Gold Coast and the response was strong. At the end of the training course he asked them to do their best for the scheme for which they had been trained, but stressed that if they failed the responsibility was his. Whereupon: 'the senior African rose and said simply: "There is no question of *your* responsibility; we leave tomorrow as a team, whether *we* succeed or *we* fail". In this "*we*", says Dickson, lies the whole future and adventure of our work'.²

This factor of relationship is, indeed, all-important. It is already well recognized on

1. Instances of the application of rigorous selection techniques designed to test candidates' suitability for extension work are, however, described by J. B. Chitambar in 'Pre-selection Training of Gaon-Sathis', *Jumna-Par Punarnirman Despatch* (Allahabad), No. 3, 1952, and by C. F. Cannell, F. G. Wale and S. Withey in 'Community Change: an Action Program in Puerto Rico', *Journal of Social Issues* (New York), Vol. IX, No. 2, 1953.
2. A. G. Dickson, 'The concept of a team', P. Ruopp, ed. *Approaches to Community development*, The Hague, Bandung, Van Hoeve, 1953, p. 242.

many training courses for voluntary leaders but it is much less well-established on professional training courses. This is because the trainees are paid, but no agency can 'buy' more than routine work and conformity. Men will only work hard under uncomfortable conditions for policies and methods they believe in. If the agency wants keen workers, its senior officers must be willing to encourage criticism and comment on practice, and even on policy, from their subordinate workers.

Some progress towards establishing this relationship can be made even in pre-service extension training by lecturing less and discussing more, and by encouraging students to draw on their knowledge of people to build up their own opinions about the value of different kinds of extension techniques. But the effect of such training will not persist unless the same relationship is established between the supervisor and his assistants in the field. The supervisor provides the most valuable of all training experiences when he regularly meets his team of workers for discussion of the experiences they have had, and to reformulate policy and plan new programmes in the light of that experience. Provided that the supervisor has himself learnt how to work as a member of his team rather than as its director, such conferences are the most effective of all means of training. They maximize opportunities for discussing 'on-the-job' problems, they pool the varied insights and experiences of each member of the team for the benefit of all, and they can lead to decisions which every worker has helped to make.

Such conferences are valuable in various ways. They can strongly influence the workers' attitude to their agency, engendering in them qualities of responsibility, initiative and tenacity in carrying out their work. They can also influence the attitude of the workers towards the people, for the conference method is a practical demonstration of the desired relationship between the worker and the people. In fact, the manner in which the supervisor and his subordinates work out their programme together can demonstrate how the worker should work in the community. Such conferences further provide the agency with invaluable comment, criticism and advice from those most qualified to give it—the field workers who live and work among the people the agency exists to serve. This helps, indeed, to ensure that the agency remains responsive to the people's real needs.

I do not suggest that training of this kind can be suddenly and successfully introduced by direction from above. Supervisors as well as field workers may need time and training to learn to work together effectively in groups. But when these lessons have been learned at every level within the agency it will be better equipped to send into rural communities extension workers fitted to work out quickly with the people truly acceptable and practicable solutions to local needs and problems.

THE CALIOUB HOME ECONOMICS EXTENSION PROGRAMME FOR RURAL WOMEN IN EGYPT¹

MARY A. ROSS

THE PROGRAMME

An experimental extension programme of home economics for women is now being carried out in villages of the Caliouba Demonstration and Training Project of the Nile Delta. Since 1951, the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations has provided technical assistance in planning and operating this demonstration, which is designed to improve the economic status and standard of living in five villages of this area.

1. This article has been secured through the good offices of the Food and Agriculture Organization.

As F. L. Brayne has said: 'The standard of living is the standard of the home, and therefore those who wish to see the standards raised must . . . gain the confidence of the housewife and train and educate her'.

A standard of living is not dependent solely on economic factors, education and example are needed to eliminate the traditions and superstitions pertaining to child care which damage health and sometimes endanger life; to improve health through the better use of local foods; to bring light, air and cleanliness into dark rooms; to increase the farm woman's sources of income for household expenses, i.e. improve poultry and rabbit-raising and the making of butter and cheese; to teach the simple sewing and crafts that will bring a measure of comfort and beauty to the home; to introduce easier and more efficient ways of performing the arduous tasks that are a woman's lot in rural communities throughout the world; and to give the home-maker an awareness of her dignity as the person on whom depends the health and happiness of the next generation.

In communities where by tradition female activity does not extend beyond the home and family circle, the problem of how to reach women may be greater than the problem of what to teach them.

The first step. A preliminary survey was made in one village by the home economist and nutritionist on the FAO team, with the assistance of an Egyptian graduate in social science from the American University in Cairo, who served as a volunteer. First visits were paid to the *omda* (mayor), sheikhs, large landowners, and the teachers at the village school, to collect general information about the village, to learn the problems of the people from their leaders and, most important, to gain their confidence and co-operation.

After these introductory visits women came to their doorways, vying for the honour of a visit from 'the foreign ladies'. It was made clear at the first visit to a home that the worker had nothing to give and would take nothing away—her interest was in the mother, her children and her home. The traditional hospitality and sense of humour of the Arab people made these visits pleasant occasions. After a cup of tea or steeped fenugreek was served the women would talk for hours about their lives and problems. Questions were answered freely and often provoked discussions about the visitors and their personal lives. The warmth and friendliness of the assistant who acted as interpreter, her skill in verbatim translation, her sensitivity to village customs and traditions, and her insight into the purpose of the interview maintained the essential balance between the social and professional content of the visit. Following a previously prepared schedule for the recording of information, notes were written in private after the visit, and the writing up and evaluation of repeated visits to 26 selected families was done jointly by the three workers.

The preliminary home economics survey set the pattern that has since been followed in introducing each trainee to a new village. The advantage of this approach is twofold: it answers any questions that may be in the minds of village leaders and takes them into partnership from the start, avoiding misunderstanding of the purpose of the programme; and it gives the trainee a specific goal early in her work experience—to get to know 'her' village and its people and problems in an organized manner. In writing up and evaluating the material she has collected, she sees problems through the eyes of the villagers. In organizing her programme she learns to weigh the needs that she considers urgent against the expressed needs and interests of the village women. Awareness of village custom and tradition is aroused and she is more likely to strive for goals that are realistic in terms of the material, social and religious values of the people and the resources at their disposal.

Women's work in Egypt is especially arduous. Water is carried in heavy clay jugs, butter churned in a goatskin bag and cheese made daily. The women make many trips to the roof with heavy loads, going up and down a mud staircase or a ladder to

get fuel and food. Every 7 to 10 days bread is baked. Bread baking entails removing the maize from the cob, carrying it to the mill, sifting by hand, mixing the dough in huge clay bowls and forming small flat loaves that are baked in a low, mud oven. Since a small family would require 200 loaves a week, this is a big task which takes two or three women many hours to complete. In addition to making the dung cakes for fuel, she may work beside her husband in the field at certain seasons and at harvest time she brings the maize and cotton stalks from the fields, prepares them and carries them to the roof in back-breaking loads. Many make a weekly trip to the market, walking even 20 kilometres to sell a duck, a chicken, a rabbit, or a few eggs.

The work of the home economist is to lessen rather than increase these burdens. She must make available knowledge and skills that will lighten the woman's daily work and improve the quality of family life. In improving age-old patterns of daily routine the insights of the cultural anthropologist and the psychologist are as valuable as the research of the nutritionist, agriculturist and sanitarian.

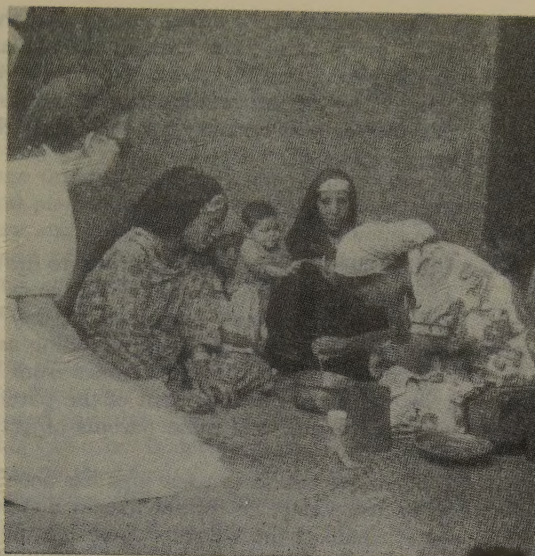
The second phase. The second phase of the programme was one of experiment. Could educated Egyptian women be found who would be willing to work in the villages? Would Muslim women and girls wish or be permitted to join in group activities? Where? At what hours? For what purpose? What needs and interests were most frequently expressed by the village people? How were these needs and interests related to our evaluation of the homes, the work done by women, and the health and income of the family? What simple changes might be attempted that were within the practical means and the available resources, and suitable to the cultural pattern and degree of literacy of the village?

RECRUITMENT OF STAFF

In order to appeal to the educated woman in a country where servants perform for her many of the household tasks, the long-term objectives and scientific orientation of the home economist's work must be carefully interpreted. Women graduates of the Faculty of Agriculture were sought, for it was believed that these young women would have a special interest in, and understanding of, rural life. They would be able to give immediate help to the village women in the care of poultry and small animals, and the making of cheese and butter in order to help to increase the woman's earnings from the start of the programme. Their training in the sciences, especially animal nutrition and bacteriology, could be supplemented with training in human nutrition, child care and sanitation, and other subject matter could be studied as the programme progressed. In addition, these faculty graduates could, if permitted, qualify for appointment to the Extension Service of the Ministry of Agriculture.

In Egypt, educated women are rapidly taking their place beside men in many professional fields and there is no discrimination in regard to salary and advancement in the civil service. The majority of women graduates in agriculture receive technical positions in the laboratories of the Ministry of Agriculture or teach science in the secondary schools. In interviewing candidates, it was considered that some experience in a rural community, a special interest in children, crafts or foods, or previous volunteer work with a social agency were desirable qualifications. The scope, flexibility and experimental nature of the work was stressed, as well as the difficulties. A day of observation in the village with the FAO home economist was arranged for women who expressed interest in the programme, and it was found useful to have a meeting with their parents so as to allow them to know the home economist and to help them to understand the programme better. Middle class families are reluctant to allow unmarried daughters to live away from home, even when suitable living quarters can be found. Travel between the villages and Cairo, long hours of work in the villages

At a village in Egypt's Nile delta, an FAO home economics expert is demonstrating to fellahin women how to make milk formula. (Photo: FAO.)



and the discomforts involved, present a sharp contrast to the life of a technician or teacher in the city.

It is a tribute to the spirit of some of the younger generation of Egyptian women and their families that two of the present staff were recruited in a few months. Of the other recruits, three more have continued with the Home Economics Extension Programme. Through the Calioub Demonstration and Training Programme, workers were placed on their temporary payroll until civil service examinations were given for permanent posts in the Ministry of Agriculture Extension Service. The two senior workers have achieved this status and three more are awaiting the results of a recent examination.

REACHING THE VILLAGE WOMEN

The intelligence and curiosity of the people and their desire for a better life is everywhere evident in the villages. However, the conservative tendencies of a people who have managed to survive centuries of extreme poverty tempers their willingness to experiment with new ways.

Since married women do not, in most villages, assemble in any public place except the health centre, demonstrations in the homes, using the woman's own limited equipment, have been found a most effective way of teaching the women simple procedures and also prove invaluable for the home economist in learning how village women manage their household tasks. Neighbours visit freely so that one demonstration may reach a number of families. News travels, in the Egyptian village as elsewhere, and new ideas are discussed and tested by friends and relatives.

The interest and friendliness of an outsider who will take time to get acquainted with the people and then sit on the floor to show a woman how to boil milk for her hungry twins, or cover the baby's face with a piece of muslin, explaining that the dirt on the fly's feet carries disease to the baby's eyes, cannot fail to make an impression. As one mother said: 'Until you came we never knew what to do to keep our children healthy. We waited until the baby's eyes were so bad he could not see and then we took him to the health centre.'

Demonstrations of infant feeding and the preparation of local foods for the weaning child, or of local foods high in protein and minerals for the pregnant and lactating mother, are given for groups of 15 to 50 women waiting their turn at the health centre. That these demonstrations arouse interest and stimulate questions and requests for personal help is certain, but their real effectiveness in changing habits has not yet been evaluated.

YOUNG WOMEN

Unlike their married sisters, girls up to the time of marriage enjoy considerable freedom. They are eager for learning of all kinds and, if they were allowed to do so, would accompany the home economist all day long in the village. It has been the policy to select classes of older girls, including as many as can be found who have had some schooling, by obtaining the names from the schoolmaster and visiting the homes to gain the interest and consent of the parents. Meetings must be held in a place reserved for women, and some parents object to their daughters going into the homes of friends.

When a group of 10 to 30 girls has been selected, they meet with the home economist to discuss what they would like to do. Sewing is extremely popular, for needlework is not a skill of the village women. As the class proceeds, other topics are interspersed with the sewing—demonstrations of child care and feeding, cooking, discussions of foods and health, care of baby chicks, or laundry methods. Several classes have made jams and fruit juices, or distilled flowers to make a popular essence, when the materials were going to waste in the village. These products are sold, the girls sharing the profit after the programme has been reimbursed for the cost of the sugar and containers.

In one village several girls have acted as assistants to the home economist, choosing families they knew and demonstrating some of the things they had learned in class. The families seemed to enjoy learning from the young people. Although all these girls will marry in the next few years, many of them while they are still in the classes, we feel that their enthusiasm for new ideas and experiences will continue to be shared by families and friends.

An active extension programme for men parallels the work with women in these villages. The agricultural advice given to the women by the home economist is correlated with the national policy and the agricultural programme. This dual approach to agricultural problems reaches man and wife with many of the same ideas, allowing them to reinterpret new ideas to each other and discuss their meaning and application.

FACILITIES

To know the village women and understand some of their problems and interests is a big step. However, for new staff to develop skills and to initiate programmes that help to raise the standard of living, a training programme for home economists and facilities for demonstration and group activity are necessary.

During the second six months of the programme, the staff of the Calioub Demonstration and Training Centre were completing the first phase of their work—multiple surveys of the area and plans for a network of centres and subcentres combining health, social, educational, agricultural and other services under a decentralized administrative plan. The budget approved for the introduction and operation of agricultural extension activities included funds for home economics extension. Plans were made to provide space for home economics activities in the centres and subcentres as the project developed. This gradual expansion and continuing support of home economics extension is keeping pace with the growth of other services.

STAFF TRAINING

Not long after the first two home economics trainees began work in the villages the Ministry of Agriculture and the Regional Office of the Food and Agriculture Organization sponsored a nine-week training programme in home economics for village workers. Thirty-six women employed in villages by various government ministries attended. The subject matter included village organization, economic aspects of village life, health and sanitation problems, food production and preservation, nutrition, preparation of low cost foods, care of poultry and small animals, simple sewing and crafts, rural industries and the production and use of visual aids. This training was supplemented by attendance at extension training seminars, a four-day visit to the Arab States Fundamental Education Centre, visits to other village projects, films, and various other means as they arose.

Weekly conferences of the home economics staff are the mainstay of the training programme. These meetings include reports on the progress of the work in each village; discussion by the group of the problems presented and planning of work for the coming week; discussions and decision on teaching aids and other materials required; an informal session on subject matter of methods given by the Director of Agricultural Extension, the FAO home economist, or another specialist. These discussions have ranged from the purpose and content of a home visit to the national agricultural policy of Egypt and its relation to women's work; group behaviour and group organization; the calculation of the nutritive values of the weekly food intake of village families; care of poultry; lesson planning and demonstration techniques, and other subjects directly related to work in the villages.

The work of the FAO home economist is planned to include one day each week in the village with each home economist to allow her to keep in close touch with village life, observe the work in progress and give individual help to the worker in her problems. In addition each staff member prepares a monthly report for the government and FAO.

RELATIONSHIPS WITH OTHER PROFESSIONS

In the beginning the agriculturist and home economist were the only 'outsiders' making regular visits to the villages. There was no doctor, midwife or social worker, and the villagers obtained medical care by walking 5 to 10 kilometres to the nearest health centre. At the invitation of the doctor, demonstrations of foods for children or for lactating or expectant mothers were given weekly at the health centre. These were, however, discontinued for lack of adequate transport. The home economist was also invited by the schoolmaster to teach crafts after the regular school hours. These lessons proved popular with the older boys and girls but few materials other than mud and palm leaves were available, and it was decided to postpone these activities until better materials were available and the more fundamental aspects of the programme had been established.

As the multiple services of the Calioub Demonstration and Training Programme develop the staffs of existing health centres are retrained and enlarged, and subcentres with resident assistant midwives are opened in the surrounding villages. The doctor, the midwife and the social worker visit the village subcentre weekly, and the services of the veterinarian, sanitarian, and other specialists are available at the centre to meet the varied needs of the village family.

Home economists play an active part in these new developments and are greatly assisted in their work with families by their colleagues. During the extended formal training period for old and new staff of the centres, lectures, demonstrations and discussions were used to introduce home economics as a profession and to define its role in helping the village people. Workers at the village level were taught simple



Classes in child care are also given to mothers at Caliouh, Sindibis, and surrounding villages. (Photo: FAO.)

methods of nutritional improvement using local foods, practical methods for promoting food sanitation and home improvement, safe handling of milk, and the like.

At the centres and in the villages the professional team approach to family problems is developing as each worker learns to understand her special role in coping with the manifold problems of the rural family. The well established faith of the village people in modern medicine has given the centres immediate and enthusiastic acceptance and this acceptance carries over to the other services offered.

Up to date no conflict between the role of the home economist and that of other professional workers has become apparent. With the social worker, new groups of girls have been organized and their programme may now include lessons taught by the social worker and the midwife, as well as by the home economist. At clinics for children and expectant mothers the home economist may demonstrate a good diet for the child or mother and, after examination, patients diagnosed as suffering from malnutrition will be referred back to her by the doctor for additional instruction or a home visit.

In the villages the assistant midwives may accompany the home economist to learn to supervise and assist a young mother struggling with the care and feeding of twins, or to discuss with a member of a sick child's family the importance of bringing him to the subcentre on the day of the doctor's visit, or to insist that the week's supply of bread be protected from flies. These assistant midwives are trained as multipurpose workers and are responsible for the care of 300 families. It is unlikely that they will be able to carry out many of the functions of the home economics extension workers, but in their daily visits to families they can play an important part in teaching child care and feeding, safe handling of food, cleanliness and simple steps towards home improvement.

EVALUATION

The advantage of developing a new programme of rural home economics in village homes has far outweighed the difficulties involved. Had work begun in organized centres, the old maxim of the successful educator, 'start where the people are' would have been impossible to follow. This programme has produced no startling changes

in the standards of the village families in the past two years. It has, however, contributed factual information on homes, family life, food habits, child care practices and the responsibilities of rural women in one area of the Egyptian Delta. We hope that these data and the experience gained in reaching women with projects that are acceptable and effective can be applied in an expanded home economics extension programme for Egypt and in the training of home economists for village work.

The programme is administered as a division of the Agricultural Extension Programme of the Calioub Demonstration and Training Centre. The present interest of the Ministry of Agriculture in expanding the work is largely due to the evidence presented by home economists of the contribution made by women to the family income and to the standard of life in the village. It is recognized that male extension workers cannot reach Muslim women in the home and community, and that an extension programme for women and by women would contribute to the production of essential food stuffs to keep pace with the rapidly increasing population and help to provide an improved standard of living for rural families.

Present plans of the government include a fifth year at the Faculty of Agriculture in home economics extension for women graduates whose interest lies in rural work. This formal training should help to attract young women to the extension programme. It will also make available to workers in the field the consultation services of specialists and laboratories, and will provide a focus for their professional activities. These faculty graduates will not, in the long run, be employed as village workers, but as district leaders of extension services for rural women.

The problem of locating and training village workers for home economics extension is not solved. The assistant midwife, residing in the village, has manifold responsibilities for the health and welfare of her families. She can do a great deal to improve family and child feeding and cleanliness, but she cannot, in addition carry out an effective programme in home improvement or in agricultural improvement. Nor has she the background to do so. Female school teachers might be trained to work with women on these problems after school hours, but women teachers are not usually employed in village schools.

The concept of the role of women is changing rapidly, however, and has already changed in the cities and larger towns. In the past three years, good progress has been made by the government in providing education for all, and it is resulting in a very large increase in the number of girls attending the village schools. The fact that village women accept help with their problems when it is offered by the home economist in a friendly and constructive way indicates that they are ready to learn new ways of life.

We believe that a home economics extension programme can be developed that will help to meet the needs of the village home-maker and will strengthen home and family life. We are confident that educated women will come forward to lead this work.

THE WOMEN'S WELFARE SCHEME IN UTTAR PRADESH—INDIA¹

MARIA GELDENS

INTRODUCTION

Uttar Pradesh (U.P.) lies in the northern part of India, bordering on the Punjab, Tibet and Nepal in the north and east. A large part of it is made up of the fertile plains of the Ganges and the Jumna but much of it lies in the Himalayas. The main profession of the people is agriculture.

The population is 63,200,000 of which about 75 per cent are Hindus, 23 per cent Muslims. The official 1956 statistics yield the following information: the rural population, that is the population not living in the cities, amounts to about 85 per cent of the total and consists of 10 million families. These families live in 111,700 villages.

A student of India's history will understand why the women of U.P. are not yet on a par with the women in other States of the Indian Union. Modern India however, needs full co-operation from the women of all states, based on democratic principles of freedom and self-determination. To further India's development means also to further women's welfare; and this requires a definite change in outlook of both the men and women of U.P.

In 1939, the Women's Welfare Scheme started on a small scale as a part of a rural development programme, with a view to 'mobilize, organize and energize' rural women in various activities. In 1949, the scheme was completely reorganized as an all-round development programme for rural women *and children*. The objective of this development programme was to make the villages a little happier and brighter and gradually to convert the women to a broader outlook and give them an interest in healthy and happy surroundings.

In 1953, in an attempt to solve the multitudinous needs in the villages, the emphasis was shifted to 'multipurpose' training, and this has led to the training of women multipurpose workers at the village level, to guide and assist the women on self-help lines. They are called *Gram Sevika* (*Gram* means village; *Sevika* means servant). The *Gram Sevika* thus holds the key position in the carrying out of the whole programme.

ORGANIZATION

The Women's Welfare Scheme is sponsored by the State Government through the Ministry of Social Welfare. The central directional control rests with the Director of Women's Welfare, who has four technical assistants for social education, crafts, balbary (a kind of village kindergarten) and physical culture. The District Organizer is aided by 15 *Gram Sevikas*, who attend to 15 centres covering three villages each. Every village has also one honorary worker from the village who helps the *Gram Sevika*. These honorary workers, called *Gram Lakshmis* (*Lakshmi* means Goddess of Wealth), are directly in charge of their village centre and receive a small honorarium for incidental expenses. There is also a craft teacher in each district to help the *Gram Sevikas* run short courses in various crafts such as sewing, crochet, knitting, basket-making, etc.

Types of Students Recruited for Training

The work in rural areas is very difficult as the living conditions are poor and local customs and culture are orthodox. In the rural areas, an 'extension service' has to

1. This article has been obtained through the good offices of the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO).

In the Training Centre at Teolikote, the Gram Sevikas (village servants) learn carpet making. (Photo: FAO.)



face tremendous obstacles of ancient traditions, superstitions, prejudices and taboos concerning the position of women in society and the conditions under which they should live. Farmers, now eager to improve farming techniques and increase food production, are generally indifferent to the need for home living improvements. The worker, then, required to work under these rather medieval conditions has to adjust her way of life or should be one who has lived under similar conditions.

Hence, recruitment is usually made among young women who belong to rural areas and have either homes or close relatives in the villages. Since difficulties the worker has to face cannot be imagined by an outsider, 'city women' have so far not been encouraged to take training except under very special conditions.

Preference is given to young married women, widowed and deserted wives, as Indian communities are not prepared to have young unmarried *Gram Sevikas* going about from house to house in view of the strict customs in most villages. Of course, there is the very acute problem of children when married women with young children are taken for training, but for the present we have not been able to find a solution.

Modern India must provide 2,000,000 new jobs every year. The rural welfare scheme is important, thus, in providing dignified and useful jobs for hundreds of women who were without hope, and who now find avenues for important work open to them.

Only a few years ago, very few women dared break away and come for training in *Gram Sevika* work, but this has now greatly changed. The women are coming forward willingly to take this opportunity. They leave the backroom allotted to them after the demise of their husbands and go to work at their own initiative. Of course, this is still a small rivulet, but there are signs that it will be a strong stream before long.¹ The women are now preparing themselves to overcome the handicaps which each woman worker has to face in the villages. At present, a great number even of young, unmarried women apply for training, fully realizing that afterwards they will have to face the real ordeal of starting work in a village.

With regard to basic training, formerly (1939) the trainees were recruited among women without any specific qualifications. Thereafter, the educational qualification required was a standard 4 and 6 pass; since 1955, however, a standard 8 pass has become necessary for acceptance in training as a *Gram Sevika*. Here, a new problem arises. In the rural areas, there are very few good schools for boys and village girls do not usually attend boys' schools after standard 4. The present educational quali-

1. The Hindu Marriage Act, 1955; Act No. XXV of 1955, and more especially Sections 10-15, in this respect are of historical importance.



Kitchen gardening is one of the subjects taught to the trainees at the Teolikote Gram Sevika Training Centre. (Photo: FAO.)

fication (8th class passed) has the disadvantage that the village girls must attend school away from home for four years under urban or semi-urban conditions.

To sum up, in the past few years considerable progress has been achieved. The accepted principle of recruiting for *Gram Sevika* training only women with a solid village background, is a sound one. The qualification now applied to basic training (8th standard) should be raised soon to high school or equivalent level. This will not be difficult as some matriculates have already been attracted by this work.

Recruitment of Students

At district level propaganda to attract women from the villages to join the *Gram Sevika* training is carried on throughout the year. Uttar Pradesh is divided into 51 districts and the Women's Welfare Scheme is now operating in 30 districts (in National Extension Blocks and Intensive Development Blocks, and only exceptionally in Community Projects). The District Organizer handles the propaganda with the male village level workers (*Gram Sevik*) and in co-operation with the local woman MLA (Member of Legislative Assembly), who tours her own constituency almost constantly.

Twice a year another local authority, the District Planning Officer, inserts advertisements in the local newspapers and receives the applications. The applicants pay no registration or tuition fee. Those who are selected receive a stipend covering their board and lodging and some incidental expenses. The selection is made by a small district committee (District Planning Officer as chairman, the School Inspector, the District Organizer and two members of the District Planning Committee).

After selection, the District Planning Officer forwards the name and particulars of each candidate to the Directorate of Women's Social Welfare in Lucknow. The final choice rests with the Director of the Women's Welfare Scheme, who makes the selection according to the needs of a particular district and the capacity of the training centres. The selected candidates report to the training centres where their suitability is proved during the first month of training. Those found unsuitable are weeded out.

Training Centres for Gram Sevikas

The Women's Welfare Scheme has three training centres, two in the plains and one in the hills, each able to accommodate 50 trainees. The location is important because the difference in climate, living conditions, culture and folkways requires a different kind of training. A *Gram Sevika* from the hill districts should not be posted to the plains and vice versa. The permanent staff of each training centre consists of a superintendant and three teachers—in craft, balbarry and physical culture.

A serious effort is being made to give an adequate training to the *Gram Sevikas*. The syllabus now followed in the training centres is, of course, too elaborate and ambitious. It contains too much for a six months' course: an approach to village adult literacy, balbary, health, cultural activities, ante-natal and post-natal care, child care, co-operatives, animal husbandry, vegetable gardening, crafts such as cutting, sewing and tailoring, toy making, *Niwar* (tape weaving), *Dari* (making of cotton mattresses) and *Kalin* (carpet-making), embroidery, knitting, crochet, basketmaking, spinning, fruit preservation and social education.

A further difficulty is that adequate, trained extension staff is not available to man the training centres, as there is no good training centre which teaches methodology and extension work.

The scale of pay provided for the teachers in the training centres for *Gram Sevika* is also too low to attract top ranking technical workers who could be trained easily in methodology and extension work.

Owing to these handicaps, the teaching techniques and use of teaching aids have not yet been developed to any extent. Some elementary charts, pictures, picture stories, dramas, action songs and nursery rhymes are being used, but these should be introduced on more appropriate lines.

Up to July 1955 the duration of the course was six months. During this period the trainees were sent every morning from 8-12 a.m. to villages near the training centre. But 'near' in Uttar Pradesh means miles of walking for the *Gram Sevikas*. This is not the case for male village level workers who are provided with bicycles, but so far bicycles have not been introduced in the training centres for *Gram Sevikas* as in most of the villages the inhabitants do not approve of a *Gram Sevika* going about on a bicycle. However, a few cycles might be provided in each training centre, so that the trainees can learn the technique of cycling, for the time is not so far off when bicycles will be accepted by the village folk. The training course has now been extended from six to nine months. As an experiment the trainees are sent out for two month's field work after six months' training in the centre. During these two months the trainees get practical experience of field work under direct supervision of the District Organizer and trained *Gram Sevikas* in various women's welfare centres which have been established in villages throughout U.P.

After two months' field work, these trainees return to the training centre for a one month 'winding up' seminar.

The actual teaching is handled by a few permanent staff members and some outside lecturers. The classes given by outside lecturers are inclined, however, to be irregular for various reasons, and the bulk of the teaching is done by the permanent staff. A few model lessons are given but during the first six months no practical field work is included in the training. As this does not allow the gap between theory and practice to be bridged attempts are being made to adopt a more practical approach in this matter.

The supervision and follow-up of the whole scheme is carried out by the District Planning Officer and the District Organizer of the Women's Welfare Scheme, with the added assistance of the tours made by the technical assistants and the Director.

The need for the follow-up in the form of in-service refresher courses is keenly felt and the possibility of consolidating this work before further expansion is now being considered.

The subject matter of the training must be chosen with a view to relieving the heavily burdened and overworked village women of a part of their burden by introducing simpler, more efficient and more useful methods of working. Home economics is of great importance, second only perhaps to health and hygiene.

Home improvement and home-making, which has so far been neglected in the

Women's Welfare Scheme, will be covered when a larger place is given to home economics in the syllabus.

The Government has, in fact, decided to start two home economics training centres under the Women's Welfare Scheme in the very near future.

A large number of organizations working on a voluntary basis with grants from the Government are promoting services for women and children in rural areas. They have been doing valuable work for women's welfare, but there has been little co-ordination among them. Any appreciable improvement in all aspects of the work will depend on rationalizing the energies of all these non-official agencies in the State.

The Government of U.P. has not yet sponsored a programme to evaluate the success of the work or to publish summaries for the information of the workers in the field. Independent evaluation programmes for the non-official schemes do not yet exist.

However 'self evaluation' in the form of periodical reports on the achievement of targets, amounts of expenditure incurred, extent of participation and the personnel position in the different districts will shortly be incorporated in the training of the *Gram Sevikas*.

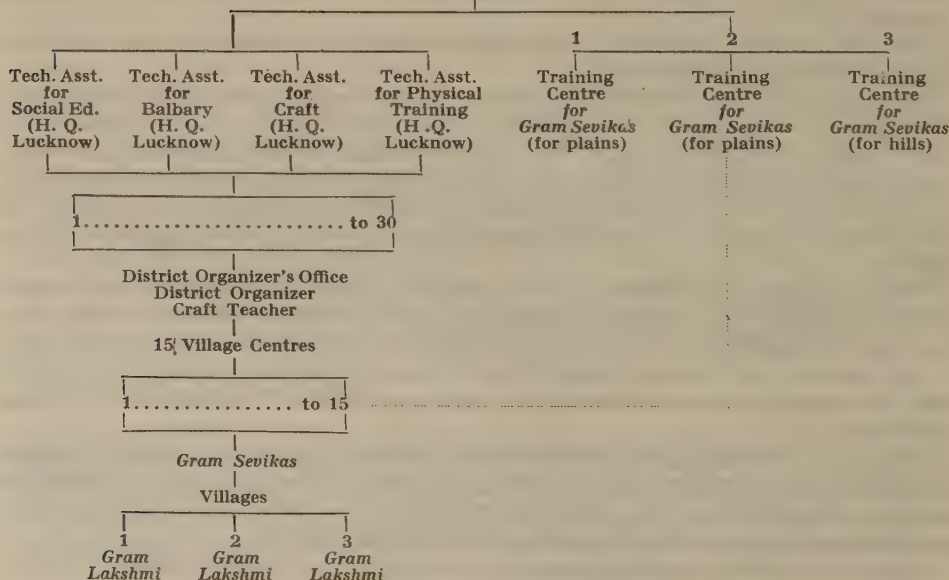
CONCLUSION

The Women's Welfare Scheme has become recognized as an important and permanent branch of all rural development programmes. So far 192 *Gram Sevikas* have been posted, 150 are now under training, and honorary workers now number 350. There is a constant demand from the villages for Women's Welfare Work to be started amongst them. The work is gaining momentum, and women in many villages are hungry to receive new practical advice which will help improve their homes and their villages. The Directorate of Women's Welfare has now also recognized the need to introduce youth clubs for young girls and women, and funds have been provided to start four key pilot projects for this work.

MINISTER FOR SOCIAL WELFARE, U.P.

HEADQUARTERS LUCKNOW

Directorate of Women's Welfare Scheme (H. Q. Lucknow)



TRAINING FOR COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IN MEXICO¹

DR. JOSÉ FIGUEROA ORTIZ

The Government of Mexico has planned special measures for the application of a rural health scheme and, under the Rural Social Welfare Programme, is also conducting a public health scheme for the purpose of improving general living standards and public health in rural areas.

This programme is administered by a co-ordinating service which comes under the Department of Health and Social Welfare and is located at the department's headquarters in Lieja and Reforma Avenues, Mexico City. The work is carried out by various federal government departments and by regional and community organizations, and is co-ordinated by an Interdepartmental Commission for the Conduct of the Programme, set up by a presidential decree.

In 103 localities in practically all parts of the country, the service is carrying out a public health programme, through community organization and development. The administration of the Rural Social Welfare Centres is the joint responsibility of the Programme staff and of committees elected by the communities themselves.

The work is financed by federal government grants, covering mainly the salaries of specialists, and by contributions from communities for specific activities, particularly in the form of practical and welfare work.

Lack of experience with work of this nature made it necessary, for the conduct of the programme as a whole, to provide intensive training for the specialists who would have to organize and co-ordinate community efforts to achieve the health standards laid down by the World Health Organization.

Staff is recruited from among qualified teachers with experience of rural work and social workers or assistants; no entrance fee is required. The classes have a maximum of 25 pupils each and four courses have so far been organized. Only seven of the candidates who have embarked on courses have failed to complete them. All the graduates are now working in the Rural Social Welfare Centres. During the course, the co-ordinating service of the programme granted students an allowance of 400 Mexican pesos a month as well as travel allowances while engaged in field work.

At the outset, the staff of the programme was trained, under the direct supervision of the co-ordinating service, by specialists in anthropology, social work, education, health in general, hygiene and maternal and child welfare, rural economy and rural nutrition; these specialists were on the regular staff or acted as the advisors of the co-ordinating service, other services of the Department of Health and Social Welfare, or other federal government departments and educational establishments.

Now that the programme has been in operation for two years, the teaching staff consists of specialists in the various branches of public health, economics, sociology, social work or education, belonging to the staff of the co-ordinating service and assisted by experts in related branches of health, belonging to the Department of Health and Social Welfare.

All the teachers have received special training in their particular subject and also have experience of rural work. The co-ordinating service is responsible for laying down the general policy to be followed.

At the outset the teachers received fees but all now work on a voluntary basis.

The training course includes theoretical instruction and a period of supervised field

1. This article has been secured through the good offices of the United Nations Bureau of Social Affairs and is published with the authorization of the Department of Health and Social Welfare, Mexico.



A group of 'social promoters' trained by the Mexican Rural Social Welfare Programmes are practising the organization of school breakfasts. (Photo: Secretaria de Salubridad y Asistencia, Mexico.)

work; at the beginning these two stages lasted 15 and 30 days respectively but they have now been extended to 30 and 45 days.

The 1955 Training Course for Community Development Work was planned along the following lines:

Aim. To provide specialized training for community development work and to prepare the staff for working as a united team on the Rural Social Welfare Programme in their particular area. In particular, the course endeavoured (a) to provide guidance regarding the philosophy and standards on which the Programme is based; (b) to teach recruits about the standards which they should observe in their special activities, as members of the whole Rural Social Welfare team, in their particular working area; (c) to fit them for the training, in their own speciality, of auxiliary staff drawn from members of the community, and for the organization and supervision of the work carried out under the Rural Social Welfare Programme in their region.

Method. Training by means of a multi-purpose course including lectures, demonstrations and field work, in representative regions coming under the authority of the co-ordinating service of the Rural Social Welfare Programme.

Organization of the course. The course includes theoretical and practical training in: (a) health and the factors on which it depends; (b) the rural community and its characteristics; (c) health problems in rural areas; (d) the national policy for the protection of the rural population; (e) the policy of the Department of Health and Social Welfare for dealing with health problems in rural communities; the Department of Health and Social Welfare, its functions and organization; the Rural Social Welfare Programme, its underlying principles and aims; welfare work and organizations linked with the Rural Social Welfare Programme; community organization and development; the techniques of social work as applied to the Rural Social Welfare Programme; co-ordination of the work carried out under the programme with that of the community, services of the Department of Health and Social Welfare and other governmental and local services; health administration in the Rural Social Welfare Programme; (f) seminar.

In the interests of pupils, the working day during the stage of field work is limited to an average of 10 hours.

No certificate is conferred at the end of the course.

Subsequent activities. All those who have completed the course are put in charge of Rural Social Welfare Centres or work as co-ordinators at the head of various centres grouped together to form working zones.

Health specialists acting as regional co-ordinators and specially trained social workers

pay periodic visits to communities for the supervision of the programme. In addition, community development workers are convened to periodic round-tables, held in each region or at the headquarters of the co-ordinating service, for the purpose of pooling experience and opinions and of keeping workers abreast of the programme's latest developments.

Training of assistants in villages. Training is provided for two different types of assistants: (1) specialized assistants who have to perform specific tasks and (2) multi-purpose workers.

Each type of training will be described separately.

1. After consultation with the director of the programme, specialized workers are recruited by the communities in which the centres are established or which are covered by their work; they attend special courses on such subjects as dressmaking, domestic economy, educational extension work in the fields of health and the social sciences, domestic cattle-breeding, social education for midwives having no theoretical training, etc.

These courses for assistants never include more than 25 pupils; recruits must be able to read and write and be interested in carrying out specialized community development work in their own locality on completion of their course. No entrance fee is required, nor do the workers subsequently receive any salary, but their work in their own homes or in the community, the effectiveness of their teaching and their specialized community development work is supervised.

The training, which is always practical, with some theoretical grounding, is provided by an instructor who is either a teacher, a social worker or a specialist in the particular subject in question; it is this person who subsequently acts as supervisor.

These instructor-supervisors are paid officials. The duration of the training is variable and, in communities so requesting, a diploma of assistant is conferred on completion of the course.

Trained assistants, who continue to live in their own communities, promoting teaching in their own particular fields, maintain excellent relations with their communities, of which they still remain members though with a more important social status. The exact number of social workers who have received training is not known, but it is in the vicinity of 2,450.

No valid conclusions can be formed as to the effectiveness of the programme, since the appraisal stage has not been completed and the statistics available are inadequate.

2. Although some communities have trained various individuals who automatically



The Mexican Social Workers also participate in village festivals and other social events in the communities. (Photo: Secretaria de Salubridad y Asistencia, Mexico.)

become social workers or voluntary assistants, coping with all the activities covered by the programme, really systematic training has been provided for multi-purpose workers in the Tanaquillo area, Michoacan, to which the following data refer.

A course lasting one year was organized for 25 pupils of not more than 20 years of age, coming from the various localities in the area, and whose training fees were provided by their own communities. The training was given in a special school, in association with the Rural Social Welfare Centre and the Public Hospital, its purpose being to fit each pupil to act as a leader in his own community, and to provide the help required in emergency cases, e.g. first-aid, health and social work.

The teaching staff consisted of a trained nurse, who served as an instructor, a social worker in the programme's special courses and the specialist and auxiliary staff of the Social Rural Welfare Centre.

The syllabus covered the principles of social work and community organization, elementary nursing, first-aid work, education about home life, domestic economy and other related subjects. As all the pupils spoke only the indigenous language, they were first taught Spanish so as to bring them to a uniform level of education, before the beginning of the training course proper. All recruits have completed the course and they are now working in their own communities. Their work is supervised by the centre's social worker and an instructor from the school.

The appraisal of the course, as regards both theoretical and practical training and the supervision of work in communities, has shown that less emphasis must be placed on theoretical and specialized training and more on practical training, and, above all, on knowledge about and organization of the community.

On the basis of this experiment, the co-ordinating service of the Rural Social Welfare Programme is organizing other schools for multi-purpose workers on other areas of the country and has remodelled the plan of the Tanaquillo school, which initiated a new course in November 1955.

SOME PROBLEMS IN THE TRAINING OF SANITATION PERSONNEL IN THE AFRICAN REGION OF THE WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION¹

GEORGE V. JINKS

RECRUITMENT

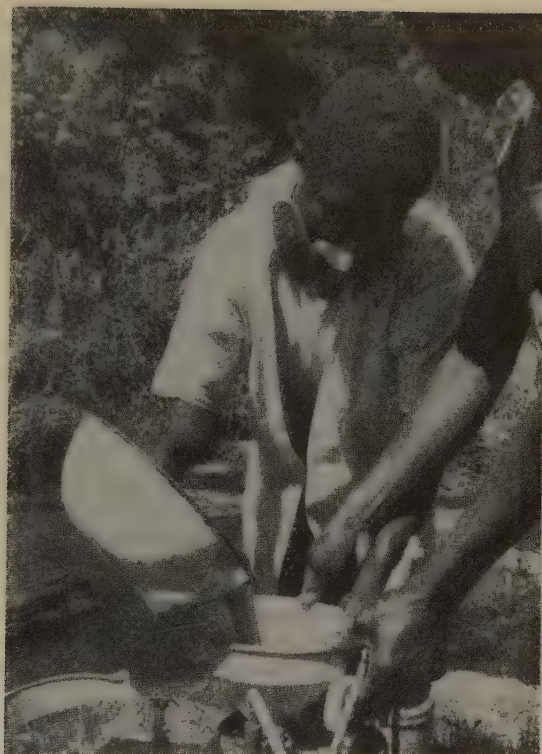
Before discussing the problem we must first define the term 'sanitation', and give some idea of the immensity of the land areas involved, extending as they do from Tangier to the Cape, and from the Cape Verde Islands to the Seychelles, 1,000 miles out in the Indian Ocean.

For the definition, we may turn to the Second Report of the Expert Committee on Environmental Sanitation², where the term 'environmental sanitation' is defined as: '... the control of all those factors in man's physical environment which exercise or may exercise a deleterious effect on his physical, mental or social well-being. In particular it refers to the control of: methods for the disposal of excreta, sewage and community wastes, to ensure that they are adequate and safe; water-supplies, to ensure that they

1. This article has been secured through the good offices of the World Health Organization.

2. World Health Organization *Technical Report Series*, No. 47.

A group of sprayers preparing the dieldrin-mixture.
(Photo: WHO, Pierre Pittet.)



are pure and wholesome; housing, to ensure that it is of a character likely to provide as few opportunities as possible for the direct transmission of disease, especially respiratory infections, and encourage healthful habits in the occupants; milk and other food supplies, to ensure that they are safe (the question of their nutritive value being excluded from consideration); personal and public habits of cleanliness, especially in relation to disease; arthropod, rodent, mollusc, or other alternative hosts associated with human disease; atmospheric conditions, to ensure that the external atmosphere is free from deleterious elements and that the internal conditions of workshops, houses, etc., are suitable for the occupations undertaken in them; factories, workshops, dwellings, streets, and the general environment, to ensure freedom from risk to health whether mechanical, chemical, or biological, and to provide the best working and living conditions.⁷

This definition clearly demonstrates the urgent need for the training of various categories of personnel so that the physical, mental and social well-being of the African may be safeguarded. Within this continent, there are millions suffering from malaria, leprosy, sleeping sickness, yaws, venereal diseases, tuberculosis and various intestinal parasitic infections—all preventable diseases. It will be many years before exact figures can be given, largely owing to the lack of trained personnel in the field of both curative and preventive medicine. In many territories, the accent is still placed upon cure, with the result that there is a most serious shortage of adequately trained personnel, particularly in preventive medicine. The chief categories are: sanitary engineers, medical health officers, veterinarians, entomologists, public health nurses and health visitors, plant operators for sewage and water-works, health inspectors, health assistants and health aids, and voluntary leaders for the mobilization of self-help.

The immensity of the area of the African region is not generally realized, as an illustration, the United States of America, India and Pakistan, and China could be superimposed upon this continent, still leaving a certain area of unoccupied land. The conditions in which personnel operate, then, vary from rural areas in the most underdeveloped regions of the continent, through rural and urban districts of varying degrees of advancement, to the most highly developed industrial areas of the modern cities. Again, the systems of both local and central government through which control of the environment is normally exercised, have developed in different ways according to local needs and according to the political, economic and social outlook of each territory.

RECRUITMENT

The author has been concerned with the training of health inspectors, health assistants and health aids in three underdeveloped territories, and proposes to confine himself to these categories only. It is considered that the health inspector should have some twelve years of education, and the health assistant seven to eight years, whilst the health aid is expected to be reasonably competent in reading, writing and simple arithmetic. Unfortunately, educational standards vary greatly in different territories, and it is necessary for the tutor to obtain the maximum possible amount of information on this subject before attempting to select suitable candidates. Final choice should always be made in close collaboration with the local education authority. In all underdeveloped countries, there is a great demand for those who have received any education to fill positions as clerks in government service, teachers, policemen, etc. It often happens also that the country is receiving aid from more than one Specialized Agency of the United Nations, and possibly from other sources as well, which creates a heavy demand for educated personnel. Again, in many territories, the sole desire of the few who have received a secondary education, is to proceed abroad for further studies. This is most laudable but, it naturally results in a scarcity of suitable candidates for local training.

A further complication often encountered is that a government may have already in its service a number of health inspectors, with little or no basic education or training, and these people may be in receipt of relatively high salaries, merely through length of service. Naturally, a government does not wish to dispense with the services of old employees, but the fact remains that they cannot assimilate the necessary training required to hold an appointment commensurate with the salary received. It is also essential that adequate salary scales for all categories should be formulated and approved by the government before recruitment commences. In an attempt to attract suitable candidates, and in order to avoid disappointment in the future, the ultimate financial possibilities should be made known.

TRAINING

In view of the many different languages and dialects spoken, not only in the African continent, but in most, if not all, of the countries within the continent, the choice of the language of instruction for the lower grades of personnel presents difficulties. Neither English, French, Spanish nor Portuguese is the first language of any group of the indigenous population. Those few who have received a secondary education have had to learn one or more of the European languages, but even they will not learn readily or quickly in a language other than their own. There is rarely enough time for the tutor to familiarize himself completely with the particular language or dialect and, there is, of course, a vast difference between holding a conversation and teaching in an African language, particularly in view of the number of medical and technical terms which may have no counterpart. Sometimes, an interpreter is needed, but unless he is really excellent, there is no doubt that a certain amount is lost in the translation.

As it is often necessary to recruit personnel of a lower basic educational standard

Many more safe wells will have to be built before the dangers of polluted drinking water have disappeared from the villages of Afrika. (Photo: WHO, Pierre Pittet.)



than desired, certain essentials cannot be too strongly stressed. In the lower grades, theoretical instruction should not last more than two hours per day, the rest of the time being given to practical application. In Africa, those two hours should be at the commencement of the day's work, and such courses should be as practical as possible. The health inspector, or assistant, or aid should be in a position to show the people how to improve their environment. The old concept of the sanitary policeman and fines in the local court is fast disappearing, although, unfortunately, there are a few in every country who will not be taught. Daily revision periods and regular short written examinations are needed so as to ensure that the pupils are grasping the instruction, and that the tutor is not proceeding too quickly. Failure in say, three consecutive examinations should necessitate withdrawal from the course of study.

Regrettably, the health inspector and his subordinates are sometimes the subject of bribery and, in one in-service training course known to the author, nearly 40 per cent of the original number of students fell by the wayside, largely for this reason.

HEALTH EDUCATION OF THE PEOPLE

In an attempt to balance training in the subject matter of sanitation and training in the communication of this subject matter to village people, it is often beneficial to commence a sanitation survey of a village as soon as students have obtained a reasonable basic knowledge. The fact that in many houses there are no adults during normal working hours presents complications. In such a survey, printed forms should be provided on which the students, working in pairs, can record the number and size of the different rooms, the names and ages of the occupants, rents, details of water supply, excreta disposal, food protection, ventilation and so on. This method also provides the opportunity of elementary health education. In most parts of the continent, there are tribes with chiefs and headmen, which simplifies the problem of group health education. But areas exist in which there is no such organization, and since each family has to be dealt with as a separate entity, so much more time is required.

In Africa there still are large numbers of people who have never seen a cinema show. This is one method of getting people together, but it is not without its pitfalls. In the Walt Disney 'Hookworm' film, for example, certain audiences ridiculed the size of the worms displayed. They had never seen worms of that size; there were none in their locality, so the warnings in the film did not concern them. In an attempt to remedy this the film was run through without sound-track, and a health inspector, using a microphone, gave simple explanations in the local language. This method appeared to be better than giving a description of the film either before or after its

showing with sound track accompaniment. Health education talks and demonstrations are interspersed and, for some time after such a visit to a village, the inspectors and students 'follow-up' the teachings of the films in that particular village.¹

The inauguration of a voluntary self-help scheme offers excellent opportunities for the spread of health education. The advice and teaching of local leaders are far more readily acceptable to the villagers than the words of an 'outsider'. In the same way, students reaching the end of their training, are allowed to give short lectures to schools, guides, scouts and similar organizations, so as to encourage the co-operation of other educational agencies. The celebration of World Health Day provides a special opportunity of bringing health education to the fore.

'FOLLOW-UP' AND UTILIZATION

In territories where the sanitation services are merely at the point of commencement, supervision of practical work, surveys, etc., puts a great strain upon the tutor, for he is often the only person competent to supervise. For this reason, training classes must not be too large. In fact, too frequently, the 'follow-up' has to be left to the government concerned, owing to the great demand upon the services of the very few tutors available.

In some training courses, there is the student who is outstanding in his ability to assimilate knowledge and to apply it. We endeavour to give him further training by granting a fellowship enabling him to continue his studies in another country. In the field of sanitation in Africa, such additional training should be given in a more advanced country in the tropical or sub-tropical region.

To sum up, the country should employ sanitation personnel to the full extent of their ability and training, but this training must not proceed faster than the capacity of that country to use such services. This article deals only with the training of the junior grades of sanitation workers, but skilled direction at the highest level is necessary if initial efforts in countries where little has so far been accomplished are to be directed along the most profitable lines.

A CHICAGO EXPERIMENT IN EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION

JOHN W. TAYLOR

Educational, non-commercial television stations are a new feature in the United States, where broadcasting is essentially part of the privately owned business enterprise system and financed out of advertising revenues. In the United States broadcast frequencies are considered to be public property controlled by the federal government, but the exploitation of these frequencies for the establishment of broadcasting stations on the local or state level is left to private enterprise.

After several years of experience with purely commercial television, educational and cultural organizations came to the conclusion that this system did not permit the full utilization of this powerful new medium of communication for cultural and instructional purposes. Without denying the validity of the commercial system, these

1. *Expert Committee on Environmental Sanitation, Second Report*, Geneva, World Health Organization, 1952, 21 p. (*Technical Report Series*, No. 47.)

organizations therefore campaigned for assignment of frequencies so that non-commercial stations might be set up to furnish complementary programmes. Responding to this demand, the Federal Communications Commission reserved some 258 'channels', about 10 per cent of the total number of television channels available, for non-commercial, non-profit stations exclusively. Four-fifths of these channels are in what is known as the Ultra High Frequencies, i.e. they are assigned to broadcast on frequencies which the majority of television sets cannot receive. Educational stations were given only 50 Very High Frequency channels which can be seen by every owner of a television receiver.

To set up stations which can use these channels, or reserved frequencies, is an economic challenge. Such stations are prohibited from deriving their income through the broadcast of advertisements, nor can they rely on license fees or federal government subsidies, as is the case in most other countries with a non-commercial broadcasting system. To find the necessary resources, educators had to turn to local and state governments, to educational institutions, to foundations, and to the people themselves. Their dollars and cents are testimony to the desire for a new kind of television programme for themselves and, in particular, for their children.

At the beginning of 1956 these efforts had led to the establishment of 16 non-commercial stations, and another eight such stations were expected to begin broadcasting before the end of the year. Together with four other stations operated by educational institutions on 'commercial channels', educational television has a potential audience of some 25 million people, and is expected to increase this audience to 40 million by the end of 1956.

These stations vary considerably; some are set up in conjunction with universities for the purpose of formal and general adult education and a few are operated primarily by foundations, while others again are attached principally to Boards of Education. The Chicago station, which is described in the following pages, is backed by all of these institutions and has as its primary purpose to serve the entire community of America's second largest city. It has aroused a wide popular demand for a television service which can bring to the audience the fruits of the educational and cultural institutions of Chicago, as well as the programmes of other educational stations throughout the United States.

These educational stations are locally owned and operated by educational institutions and organizations and they complement rather than compete with commercial television. Educational television programming has as its goal the meeting of community needs in and out of school.¹ It can do this primarily because it is not committed to the pursuit of mass audiences.

Early in 1953, Edward L. Ryerson and a group of Chicago businessmen and educators accepted the challenge of educational television and set out to make the dream of a community television station come true. The sum of \$1,100,000 was set as necessary to establish and equip station WTTW and to operate it for a period of two years. The decision was taken early that no move would be made toward employing personnel and building the station until the goal was in sight. A substantial amount of money—over \$900,000—has now² been raised and the group is working steadily to reach its new total of \$1,375,000.

Almost, every degree-granting, non-profit, higher educational institution, and every non-profit cultural, scientific and historical institution or association, with the Board of Education of the City of Chicago, make up the voting members of the Educational Advisory Board of the Chicago Educational Television Association. Its officers and board of trustees set out to get support from business and industry, foundations, and

1. A general article on 'Television's Challenge to Adult Educators' written by Henry R. Cassirer of the Unesco Secretariat, appeared in our July 1955 number.

2. December 1955.



Cameras get set for 'World Spotlight', a news-in-depth presentation by the Chicago Council of Foreign Relations. Background of a current news event is discussed by experts in the area under consideration. (Photo: WTTW.)

the general public. In September 1954, the Executive Director was secured and was told to go ahead with plans to staff and build the station. A programme manager, a chief engineer, and a production manager were engaged and given the task of getting the station into operation in the autumn of 1955—a studio site having been selected on the ground floor of the east wing of Chicago's Museum of Science and Industry.

With an area where its 5,760,000 people could watch 2,059,000 television sets, Chicago is, I dare say, the richest spot in the United States as far as potential programme resources are concerned. It will not be a question of *where* the station will find materials to fill its 30 hours a week of initial programming, but rather *how* will it choose its daily presentation from its fantastically rich sources.

FINANCING WTTW IN THE FUTURE

The original plan of providing the station's facilities and underwriting its operation for 30 hours a week for a period of two years, was based on the belief that during this time it would be possible to determine how it could thereafter support itself. There are several ways in which this can be done.

The Fund for Adult Education of the Ford Foundation, in granting a maximum of \$150,000, on a matching basis, to educational television stations to aid in the purchase of their capital equipment provided that each station should purchase from these funds a kinescope film recording machine. This machine would make it possible for the educational stations to record live programmes on film. The Fund for Adult Education, also by a grant, established the Educational Television and Radio Center, now at Ann Arbor, Michigan. All of the educational stations are affiliates of this organization. The centre chooses from among the programmes which the stations themselves are producing those which the centre will subsidize and cause to be placed on film for later circulation among all the educational stations. An educational film network has thus been established by this use of kinescopes, and each station is able thus to produce certain live programmes at the cost of the centre. From the point of view of WTTW this means that programme costs are paid for particular 'live' shows; thus, the more live series there are in the centre's total film offering, the better off financially the station will be.

Another means of future financing for WTTW lies in the field of in-school programming. If the school boards of the listening area around Chicago decide to make use of the station for in-school broadcast purposes, these school boards will, of course, defray the costs of producing and telecasting the programmes. The station will benefit

financially since overhead costs may be charged on a percentage basis to the in-school programme.

A third source of income could be worked out from the practice of many large industrial and business corporations in the United States of carrying on what is known as 'institutional advertising'. This means, in effect, that no advertisement is made for a particular product; all that is aimed at is identification of the name of the organization.

The sale of books and instructional materials related to particular courses by the station can provide another source of revenue. For example, a course in elementary German is being run by the Chicago station at present. Over 6,000 individuals have purchased, at 50 cents a copy, the study guide for this course. A 26-lesson course offered for a half-hour twice a week in 'How to Improve your Reading' will begin on WTTW shortly. A \$3 book upon which the course will be based, will be sold by the station. Any profits resulting from the sale of these books will go toward the operation of the channel.

The station will, therefore, make every effort in all these ways to support itself and will spend a great deal of time during the next two years in trying to devise other means of surviving financially.

PROGRAMMING AT WTTW

There is no item in the budget of the station to pay artists who appear on the programmes. Obviously, therefore, our programmes must be given to us and must come from our Chicago community. The representatives of member organizations—universities, colleges, museums, etc.—comprise our Educational Advisory Board. This board has developed the following policy which has been approved by the Board of Trustees: '...WTTW will attempt to offer opportunities to educate in both a general and specific sense; to draw forth from its viewers the highest intellectual and cultural response of which each is capable; to stimulate interest in the many diverse fields of human endeavour; to assist people to know themselves, to learn to work with others, to understand better a complex world; to inform citizens fairly regarding on important issues of the day; and to provide opportunities for individuals to acquire better skills for better living.'

'People who Posed' is the title of a weekly programme sponsored by the Art Institute of Chicago. Host on the show is George Culler, director of museum education for the Institute. Each programme presents a different artist's view, either in painting or sculpture, of another human being of his time. Subject on this show is the portrait of Mrs. Daniel Hubbard by John Singleton Copley. (Photo: WTTW.)



Our programme manager started work in November 1954 by surveying the needs in the community and canvassing the programme resources of the station's affiliates. From these and other organizations came scores of carefully thought-out suggestions for possible programmes. In addition, newspapers publicized the fact that the station was receptive to ideas, and a number of good suggestions came in. Schedules of other stations around the country were studied. Interesting programmes were analysed for their possible adaptability to the Chicago audience. From over 400 individual programme possibilities, we have determined our initial three months of telecasting.

Programming is scheduled from 4 to 10 p.m. Mondays to Fridays. The 4 p.m. sign-on allows for children's programming after school in sufficient variety to attract not only the nursery and kindergarten group but also the boys and girls of elementary school age. We believe that our clearest mandate from our several hundred thousand 'stockholders' is to provide children's programmes of value as alternatives to the children's shows currently available in this time period from commercial stations.

From 5 to 6.30 p.m. we need to clear our studios of afternoon shows and rehearse for evening telecasts. Instead of going off the air, however, we are providing 'Window to the World of Music' during this dinner hour period. Visual programming will enhance listening, but it will not be necessary to watch the screen in order to enjoy the music. From 7 to 8.30 p.m. will be what we like to call family viewing. It is evident that many programmes in the fields of music, art, science, literature and current affairs can be of interest to school age children and adults as well. We hope to be able to build up telecasts which will have universal interest for the entire family.

The programming from 8.30 to 10 p.m. will be of a general nature, with adult subjects reserved for the later hours. Interspersed into the entire schedule will be five hours of the best programmes produced by other educational television stations elsewhere in the country, which will come to our viewers on film.

The programming from 4-10 p.m. five days a week will, in effect, aim at bringing *something to some of the people some of the time*.

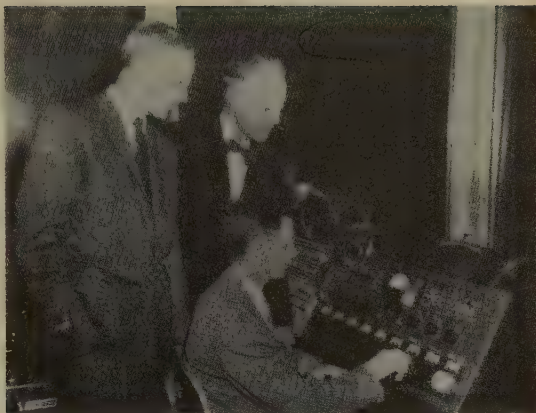
The really important question is whether we can make educational programming interesting enough to attract an audience. If we should hit upon shows which have such a mass appeal as to interest the commercial telecaster, then we shall lose them. This, however, is as it should be. Part of the object of the exercise is, in fact, to get good educational programming spread as widely as possible. This has already happened in three specific instances. Professor Baxter with his 'Shakespeare' on television originated as an educational programme and went to a national network. Sonny Fox and his 'Finder' originated at the St. Louis Educational Television Station, and in less than a year went to a national network. Josie Carey's 'Children's Corner' developed at Pittsburgh and after a year and a half has gone to a national network.

BROADCASTS FOR SCHOOLS

The morning and early afternoon hours will be available for in-school broadcasts. The attitude of the Chicago Educational Television Association toward in-school broadcasting may be stated simply as follows: We are ready to provide *what* is wanted in the way of in-school broadcasts *if, as, and when* the schools want it. The legal provision for school boards to share the cost of whatever in-school broadcasting they desire, may be found in the new Section 6-60 (which came into effect on 7 July 1955) of the Illinois School Code of 1 May 1945. This new permissive section reads: 'To enter into contracts, either alone or in co-operation with other school boards, for the purpose of participating in or the procuring of television broadcasts for use in the educational program of schools.'¹

1. In St. Louis, Seattle and New Orleans the public, parochial and private school authorities are making annual contributions of \$1 per year per pupil in school to their ETV stations' in-school programmes.

William Allman, left, chairman of one of Channel 11's community committees in Gary, Indiana, and Director John W. Taylor, watch as Engineer Robert Beutlich operates control room equipment. (Photo: WTTW.)



Officials of the Chicago Educational Television Association have been discussing in-school broadcasting possibilities with the various school authorities in the area for some time. It is hoped that during the current academic year a decision can be reached as to the kind of programme which is desired. When this decision has been taken, plans may be laid to start the broadcasting in the autumn of 1956.

The total cost would be underwritten by the original co-operating group of school boards, and steps could then be taken to propose to the 200-odd other independent school districts which operate within the 50 to 60 mile listening radius of WTTW to participate financially in the support of the programme. Suppose, for example, it were decided that contributions would be based on property valuations in the various districts. The annual participation costs for small and medium-sized school districts might run anywhere from \$300 to \$1,000. Every school system which came into the supporting group and contributed its fair share would then tend to reduce the cost to the original underwriting parties. The ideal situation would then be somewhat as follows: Total cost of in-school programme 'package': say, \$200,000. Participation of the city schools, the county schools and the parochial schools might amount to approximately 50 per cent of the basic cost, since these three units comprise about one-half of the children in school in the listening area, the other 50 per cent eventually being shared by as many as 200 different school boards or districts participating.

Examples of In-School Broadcasting

Kindergarten and pre-school. To help overcome classroom shortage an hour's broadcast of kindergarten and pre-school readiness activities might be broadcast from say 8 to 9 in the morning. As a result, a single mother might find herself running a small kindergarten class through the aid of the television facilities for half-a-dozen other mothers in her street. She might do this on Monday morning and another mother in the same group might do it on Tuesday morning, and so on throughout the week.

Elementary school programming. Discussions with group of administrators, supervisors, and teachers over the past few months would indicate that programmes in the fields of elementary science, art, music, speech, language, home economics, and human relations could be used. These units might be given in 20-minute segments for use by the teacher in the classroom and at the same time allow for a preparatory period preceding the broadcast and a discussion period following.

A group of some 150 elementary school principals indicated that there was a definite need for supplementary programmes in the upper elementary school during the period

from 11-30 in the morning to 1-30 in the afternoon. Four to six 20-minute segments in the various subject fields could be provided for use during noon hours, particularly in bad weather.

Summer courses for high school students. Last summer the Pittsburgh Educational Television Station and the school districts of south-western Pennsylvania set up a pilot project which provided a six-week televised course for students who had failed in the regular academic year. English composition and grammar, American literature, algebra 1, algebra 2, and United States history each were offered three half-hours during a week in the 7 to 8-30 p.m. period. Of 319 examinations taken by 265 different students (some took more than one course), 266 or 83 per cent passed comprehensive tests administered by the state school authorities. The pupils paid a \$5 course fee to educational station WQED's school fund. The school authorities bore the cost of instructors' and clerks' salaries for the period.

College level courses. A group is studying this problem with a view to investigating whether, by the autumn of 1956, the colleges and universities of greater Chicago area could not offer the first two years of general education at the college level by television. The bulge in the birth-rate accounting for the increased numbers now passing through the elementary schools will first affect the freshman year at the college level in 1963, and by the early '70's college enrolment will have been almost doubled. Higher institutions in the area can handle a great many more college students than are now enrolled, but with their present facilities it will be impossible for them to take care of all the needs in the next decade. We could now find out whether a large percentage of people who would be going to the first two years of college could be catered for through the television medium.

CONCLUSION

I have not intended to imply that the medium of television can take the place of the teacher, nor that the television medium is the answer to *all* of the schools' problems incidental to the increased enrolments during the next two decades. I do not intend to suggest, either, that it is the task of the Chicago Educational Television Association to decide *what* should be done for the schools, or *how*, or *when*.

My purpose was to show that the availability of television channels at a time when our need is so great, should not be overlooked. As one who has spent his whole life in education, however, I am convinced that the television medium most certainly can be used to help us toward the solution of the coming emergency in the schools in the United States and can be a tremendous factor in fundamental education programmes in underdeveloped countries. It remains to be seen whether we are resourceful enough and intelligent enough to discover the ways, means and techniques of helping ourselves. I believe we are.

Author's Note. I am indebted to Frederick B. Baty (Field Liaison Officer, National Citizens' Committee for Educational Television, Washington, D.C.) for use of his manuscript entitled 'What do you Mean—Educational Television?' and to Elizabeth A. Simpson for use of her book *Helping High School Students Read Better*, Science Research Associates, Chicago, 1954.

NOTES AND RECORD

INTERNATIONAL

BELGIAN CONGO

Fundamental Education in Belgian Territories in Africa

In the Belgian Congo and Ruanda-Urundi, fundamental education has for some years been in the hands of Government authorities, religious missions and private enterprise.

A vast network of primary schools was first set up, on which secondary and even higher education could later be built. The 'Lovanium' University was founded in 1954, and the State University in 1955. Evening classes for illiterate or semi-illiterate adults have been organized by the Government and Christian missions.

Following on a recommendation formulated during the 1944 session of the International Labour Organisation in Philadelphia, a decree setting up native co-operatives was issued on 16 August 1949. At present, there are 50 co-operatives, chiefly for consumers and producers, with a total of more than 90,000 members. It is the Government's intention to increase the number of co-operatives of all kinds wherever the need is felt and they are capable of becoming self-supporting.

Thanks to the opening of a savings bank in the Belgian Congo and Ruanda-Urundi on 10 June 1950, personal native savings amounted to 193,072,590.75 francs, and deposits in the name of native organizations to 724,441,750.09 francs, on 31 December 1954.

By setting up social centres, the Government is seeking to bring about the emancipation of native women and to foster family life in rural and urban communities. The programmes of these centres include public courses providing elementary domestic training for native women, with housewifery classes (cooking, laundry, household maintenance, gardening) and classes in general subjects (infant care, dress-making, family welfare). Each centre is run by a team of three or four European women social workers, assisted by native women. There are now 47 of these centres, serving 40,000 women; but the plan is merely in its first stages, the eventual aim being to set up a vast network of such centres covering the whole of the territory.

Side by side with these social centres concen-

trating on work amongst women, the Government is encouraging and supporting the opening of offices concerned with the social and professional training of men and boys. It also intends to take charge of the adaptation and vocational training of individuals suffering from physical or mental infirmities. The first office for this purpose has just been opened in Leopoldville.

Youth movements of an educational and recreational nature are beginning to make headway in the Colony. The most important are the Young Christian Workers, the Congo branch of the YMCA, and scout organizations. The number of sporting, recreational and cultural societies is constantly increasing. There are now more than 900, with a total membership of about 60,000, one of the most important being the Belgian-Congo cultural group in Leopoldville.

The professional organization most directly concerned with the education of native workers is based on four major types of institution: the workers' councils attached to private enterprises, the local committees of native workers, the regional and provincial commissions for labour and social progress, and the native trade unions.

Medical work and public hygiene are organized through the Government medical service, medical and philanthropic missions, and the medical services of the large private companies. Fields covered are medical assistance, social health work, scientific research, public hygiene, preventive medicine and medical training. Preventive medicine is in the hands of the Belgian Congo Red Cross, which specializes in the care of native children.

With regard to native housing, the Government has sought to meet the crisis caused by the development of urban centres, by organizing a system of credits for building native lodgings; and in 1952 it set up the Office des cités africaines (OCA), which has since built 20,000 native dwellings. The 'Credit Fund' is proving increasingly popular and is now an almost universal institution. Its resources amount to 832,724,000 francs in the Belgian Congo and 16,000,000 francs in Ruanda-Urundi. The application to building of what is known as the 'Grévisse' formula constitutes a most interesting experiment from the

educational point of view. Under this scheme, the native, with the help of his family, builds his own home, obtaining credits and technical assistance from the Government.

The Government and the Christian missions are endeavouring to develop in the natives a love of reading, and to this end are promoting the opening and extension of public libraries, of which there are at present more than 250, containing more than 90,000 books.

The Government 'Native Information' service disseminates news and information by radio, press and films.

The Belgian Congo Radio has a 20kW transmission station in Leopoldville serving not only the Belgian Congo and Ruanda-Urundi, but the whole of Central Africa. Most extra-tribal settlements and native communities are served by what is known as the 'public address' system.

The film section of the Information Service has developed an original technique well suited to the native mentality. Every year, mobile units take films to some two and a half million natives in all Belgian territories in Africa.

The present colonial press includes about 80 publications specially designed for the native population. The *Voix du Congolais*, for instance, is sponsored by the authorities but entirely written by natives of the Congo and enjoys a large measure of independence. It is the organ of the native elite, whereas the illustrated paper *Nos Images*, printed in French and various local dialects, is more suited to the general public.

The most worthwhile application of the system of fundamental education in our African territories is certainly the organization of the rural population into peasant communities. According to the standard definition, native peasant communities are a form of rural economic organization proper to the Congo, under which groups of peasants and their families exploit systematically and rationally the land on which they live. Initially, the peasant communities represented an attempt to ensure the protection of land threatened by native agricultural nomadism, and to settle the rural population on rationally and systematically cultivated land. The economic, social and educational consequences of the problem, which at the outset was purely agricultural, gave rise to a plan to set up rural co-operatives and social centres, each with its hall for social gatherings, clinic, school, shops and clubroom, thus forming the nucleus of a well-organized community settlement. In charge of each peasant community is a territorial administrator, working hand in hand

with an agricultural expert, and these are assisted by a staff of technically-trained natives. This system is allowing a class of land-owners to grow up and thrive. The 10-year plan provides for the settlement of 385,000 small farms. Present investigations have covered 5,862,034 hectares of land, with 142,272 allotments, 92,062 of which are already settled. The Native Welfare Fund plays a most important part in the implementation of the Government project.

The progressive organization of rural native populations into peasant communities constitutes a vast Fundamental Education experiment comparable to those being carried out by Unesco experts in many underdeveloped countries.

BOLIVIA

Special Community Education Course Organized at the Warisata Rural Teacher Training College¹

One of the striking features of education in 1954 was the activity, in the technical field, of the Warisata Teacher Training College (La Paz), which embarked on systematic community education work aiming at: (a) strengthening relationships between school units and the surrounding community by devising adult education programmes suitable for the Aymara Indian population; (b) providing adequate theoretical and practical training for the students of the Teacher Training College, as well as for its teaching staff; (c) helping the community over the initial difficulties involved in social betterment by promoting co-operation between teachers, students and the population.

Special Community Education Course at the Warisata Teacher Training College. In 1955 the period from 15 July to 5 September was set aside for the organization of an intensive course in community education, adapted to the needs of a Teacher Training College in Bolivia.

The Warisata experiments had such a positive influence on the new rural teacher training plan in Bolivia, which emerged from the first round-table conference on rural teacher training (in December 1954), that the general plan for rural teacher training schools, submitted by the author of the present report, was unanimously approved. The specific aims of rural teacher training colleges in respect of school and community organization were: (a) to deal with the problem of training teachers versed in new fundamental education trends,

1. Note supplied by Professor Victor Montoya Medinacely, Fundamental Education expert.

channelling and classifying the varied experience acquired in country school units and rural teacher training colleges throughout Bolivia; (b) to turn rural teacher training colleges into experimental laboratories for educational and social questions, showing how their findings have been carefully applied in their respective areas; (c) to increase the numbers of active qualified teachers having a true *civic sense* and the ability to obtain positive results in rural communities; (d) to *organize social betterment projects* in conjunction with the leaders of each community and existing institutions, seeking to make these projects a *source of observational and practical work* for the student teachers; (e) to direct the people's aspirations and anxiety for the social betterment of the community in which the teacher training college works and makes its influence felt into channels corresponding to recent social achievements such as land reform, universal suffrage, diversification of the national economy, etc.

The following standard method has been adopted for the satisfactory organization of community work: members of the staff of the teacher training college are to be divided into two teams to co-ordinate all work done in the community, and given well-defined geographical spheres of action, so that they do not interfere with each other.

The teacher training college programme is divided into four closely-related sections: specialized educational subjects, techniques, and social sciences (which need no special comment), and community organization and development, including such subjects as sociology and fundamental education, cattle-raising, hygiene, rural industries, home management, recreational music and recreational sport and gymnastics. These are the subjects which most directly enter into community life, and to attempt to keep them within the limits of the school is to fail to recognize their true purpose.

Application of the new teacher training plan and organization of activities. The community education course held in Warisata from July to September 1955 constituted a faithful application of the new plan for rural teacher training, enabling its authors to estimate the possibilities of a general application both of the plan and of the new curricula.

In 1954, work was carried out by a single team, consisting of instructors in cattle breeding, rural sociology, hygiene and home management, under the co-ordinating supervision of the Director of the institution. In 1955, two teams were formed, known as community or-

ganization and development teams, allowing the inclusion of all the members of the staff of an institution of this kind, and thus accurately fulfilling the requirements of the new plan.

The whole Warisata community was divided into eight zones or districts, while the staff and students of the teacher training college were split up into eight working groups, with the instructors acting as co-ordinators and each group taking a separate zone as its permanent sphere of action. The district *Amautas* and the trade union secretaries of each zone were incorporated into their respective groups, so that numbers in each fluctuated between 16 and 20. The time-table of the teacher training college was modified during the special course, so that the afternoons could be devoted entirely to community work.

In view of the importance of health in the community, and particularly of the kind of emergency work that was being carried out, the community project was known as a 'health campaign', and included teaching and guidance in the following subjects: personal hygiene, rural home hygiene, sanitation, improved nutrition, livestock breeding, maternal and child care, medical care, health care, recreational activities.

Part played by the experimental primary school. The primary school for children, which is the central institution of the rural education unit of Warisata, acts at the same time as a demonstration school for the Teacher Training College. The teachers and native pupils of this school were drawn into the health campaign in the following ways: (a) *Class work.* The instructors in charge of the various subjects expounded to specially organized classes each point of the programme of communal action, in such a way as to give a clear general idea of the significance of the Warisata health campaign. (b) *Children's contacts with the community.* The head of the course organized excursions for the children to the homes of each of them, in order to establish contact in this way between the working groups and rural families. (c) *Selection of outstanding projects.* The most important features observed by pupils and teachers, in their excursions into the community, were selected as 'study units', and projects were centred around them. (d) *Special attention to certain projects.* The degree of interest they aroused was the criterion for the choice of certain specific projects for detailed study, such as the construction of a latrine at one of the pupil's homes, the paving of the patio at another, and the building of a hen-house at a third. These activities had to be duly co-ordinated with those of the team working in their particular district.

Working Methods. Once the personnel had been duly prepared for the project, the first visits to the community took place. In addition to persuasive and convincing talks with each family in its home, a series of district meetings was called, to make known officially the tasks to be accomplished within the set time-limit. These meetings were turned into healthy recreational gatherings enlivened with performances of native music by the people themselves, folkdancing and games led by the students from the training college, films on rural subjects and brief talks on the plan that was to be launched. The meetings took place in a specific place in each district, usually at the home of a leading member of the community, and as a rule all the inhabitants of the district were present.

It was decided to disinfect all the homes and to mobilize all members of the community for this purpose. The internal and external cleansing of each house and the application of DDT brought students, teachers and local leaders into direct contact with the families in their zone.

Another way of arousing the interest of the rural inhabitants in the social betterment project was the formation of reading and discussion groups. As the majority of the inhabitants—especially the women—are illiterate and do not speak Spanish, reading matter in the form of cards and loose sheets was used, and translated into Aymara after being read in Spanish. Almost all the reading cards of the Fundamental Education Library for Latin America (Washington, OAS) were used in this way, as well as the reading materials prepared by the production office of the Inter-American Co-operative Education Service (La Paz). This work aroused keen interest amongst the rural people.

Tree-planting was also organized, as a measure to temper the extreme inclemency of the climate. The experimental farm of El Belén, a few miles from Warisata, took part in this plan by providing hundreds of transplantable saplings, thus enabling three trees to be planted around each homestead.

Medical care (a doctor's services were available throughout the campaign) and vaccinations constituted a further way of teaching people the essential rules for leading a healthy life. Vaccination was carried out in the districts themselves and not at the school clinic.

Demonstrations of methods of preparing food were carried out for the benefit of mothers and housewives, in conjunction with the primary school-mistresses and instructresses and women students of the training college, in order to make them familiar with types of food

more conducive to family health, essential hygienic precautions and the use of cooking and eating utensils.

The limited time did not permit of more than an average of six demonstrations for separate homes and families in each zone. To prevent all work stopping automatically with the cessation of regular help from the training college, and to ensure that the local people themselves continued to take an interest in improving their way of life, it was decided that each team of teachers and trainees should play some part in the work of its zone for the remainder of the year, visiting it only once a week, however, instead of daily. Each zone organized its own social betterment council, consisting of five male inhabitants (former local officials) and three respectable middle-aged women—a mixed group, giving the project the benefit of its moral support and prestige. The executive set up to organize and direct the work of the council consisted of 10 men and 5 young women (married and unmarried). The members of the social betterment council were elected by all the inhabitants of each zone.

Final stages of the health campaign. A genuine Indian festival marked the close of the health campaign; it was presided over by officials of the Ministry of Rural Affairs and the Director of the Co-operative Education Service. The four last days were spent by the teachers and students of the training college in classes devoted to assessing the general results achieved and producing a methodical report on the whole work plan. The following subjects were discussed: (a) diagnosis of conditions in the community of Warisata; (b) aims; (c) means, resources and working methods; (d) objectives achieved under the communal action plan; (e) analysis of favourable and unfavourable factors at work; (f) future extensions of the plan; and (g) the task of present-day rural teachers in Bolivia.

BRAZIL

National Fundamental Education Campaign (CNER)

Until recently, the rural areas of Brazil, because of their isolation, remained untouched by the major currents of modern life. To remedy this state of affairs, the Government had set up educational bodies and services in rural town centres; but when this proved insufficient, it decided to embark on a vast fundamental education campaign, based on a better knowledge of the social and cultural conditions

prevailing in rural communities and seeking to awaken a sense of social responsibility in these individualistically minded people, in order to obtain their active participation in their own education.

The usual administrative procedure, devised by a small group of intellectuals from the towns and applied in an impersonal and uniform fashion, was set aside in this case. Moreover, some central body had to be established to co-ordinate the activities of the mass of small organizations each working in its own narrow sphere without reference to any concerted plan. Thus it was that the National Rural Education Campaign, known in Brazil as the CNER, came into being on 9 May 1952, with the specific aims of (a) studying the economic, social and cultural conditions of Brazilian rural life; (b) training fundamental education teachers; (c) encouraging co-operation between existing educational institutions and services in rural communities; (d) raising the economic level of the rural population by the introduction of modern techniques of organization and labour; (e) contributing to the improvement of the knowledge of hygiene and to the social, civic and moral advancement of rural populations; (f) giving technical and financial assistance to public and private institutions pursuing the same aims as the CNER.

The headquarters of the CNER, which is responsible for administrative questions and for sending out technical directives, is in Rio de Janeiro, where it co-ordinates the work to be done in the form of 'projects'. The staff is trained through special fundamental education courses, and must have sound practical experience before taking over the direction of the work as a whole.

In order to convert rural people to modern techniques without desecrating their traditions, the specialists of the Research Department begin by analysing all the anthropological, sociological, geological and economic features of the regions selected for CNER experiments. Later, rural missions complete this work in the field, noting the needs, wishes and possibilities of each community, and urging the people to take part in the work of modernization, the ultimate object being to enable communities to continue the work of their own accord after the specialists have left. These missions settle in the various areas for two, or, if need be, three years. Their fundamental education methods are modern and based on audio-visual aids. The headquarters is kept in constant touch with teams in the field by a 'flying squad' which visits the various missions.

In addition to sending out missions to rural communities, the CNER is responsible for the training of various types of fundamental education experts.

The first necessity was, of course, to train specialists capable of appreciating the aims of the CNER and securing the support of the rural populations. Previous fundamental education experiments had called forth much good will and even generosity from those taking part in them; but these workers, because of their lack of training betrayed technical deficiencies, and because of lack of method their efforts were often wasted. The CNER therefore established contact with individuals and institutions already doing work, of some kind, amongst rural populations. It demonstrated to them the advantages of a systematic training and promised them technical and financial assistance if they agreed to enrol for its courses.

It was decided to set up the first fundamental education training centre in a rural area not too far from the capital, accessible by good roads, enjoying favourable agricultural conditions, and capable of supporting a number of teachers and students. The State of São Paulo was chosen, on account of its excellent road network, its numerous agricultural colleges and the willingness of the inhabitants to adopt modern methods. The centre was given temporary accommodation in the Carolino de Mora e Silva School of Agriculture and Industry, at Pinhal, and began official operations there on 5 March 1952.

The first course, lasting a month, was planned for 35 resident trainees—doctors, agricultural experts, social workers, health instructresses, and school-mistresses of the state of São Paulo. From the outset, these students were split up into teams which were later to be assigned to the various sectors of Pinhal. This was the beginning of the first Pinhal rural mission.

The mornings were devoted to practical work, the afternoons to specialized courses, and the evenings to films, debates and study. At the end of the course, each team was asked to submit a report on the field work and all trainees had to take an examination in the subjects studied.

The success of this initial experiment encouraged the CNER to organize further courses for specialists from other states in Central and South Brazil. The missions thus sent out are at present operating in the states of Rio Grande do Sul and Rio de Janeiro.

Another type of course is organized by the CNER for rural teachers, whose training is considered one of Brazil's chief problems.

The great majority of rural schoolmistresses have never attended a teacher training school. Though they are willing and devoted workers, they frequently do not possess even the primary school certificate. The CNER training centres for rural teachers are specially designed for teachers such as these. There, for three or four months, they attend intensive courses in educational methods, hygiene, health education, gardening, poultry raising, domestic science, domestic industries, arts and crafts and recreational activities; they also acquire a certain practical knowledge of social service work. Practical instruction is given in the rural schools and in communities near the centres. These courses also train social workers specifically for the CNER services.

At the end of the course, the schoolmistresses return to their schools, where they endeavour to improve the standard of teaching and thus contribute indirectly to raising the community's standard of living. They are helped in their task by the rural missions. Remarkable results are achieved. In the state of Rio Grande do Sul, for instance, teachers cut off from all contact with civilization have managed to enliven the somewhat dull existence of the villagers by founding girls', mothers', farmers' and children's clubs, by organizing community festivities, and so forth.

The CNER is setting up its training centres for schoolmistresses in the localities where they work; it is important to avoid sending them to the large towns, where they might remain and thus aggravate the exodus from the country which has already created a grave situation in Brazil.

Rural teacher training centres have been established in the states of Rio Grande do Sul, Bahia, Alagoas, Ceara, Rio Grande do Norte, Pernambuco and Maranhão, and five further centres have been set up in the state of Minas Gerais, with the co-operation of the educational authorities of that state.

As the courses provided by these centres are attended by an average of 30 rural teachers at a time, almost one thousand have now been trained for their work as community educators and leaders.

Yet another form of training is provided by the CNER at young men's co-operative training centres, which aim at acquainting young people with the co-operative system, as well as cultivating in them a love of the land and the desire to settle in country districts and exploit the natural resources of the soil on rational lines.

After severe selection, the young men are settled on a farm, where they are treated not as students but as members of a co-operative

which they administer themselves. They are trained either for farming and stock breeding or for rural industries. Classes in economic and general cultural subjects round off their training. Practical work consists of 'projects' for which the young men themselves are responsible, such as growing 1,000 tomato seedlings, rearing 500 fowls, etc. In addition, they learn to sell their produce and buy equipment on a co-operative basis.

After completing one or more projects satisfactorily, the young men return to their homes. The profits they have earned are divided into three parts—one going to a savings bank account opened in their name, another to defray the expenses of the project, and a third to the trainees themselves, who thus have the satisfaction of spending their own earnings.

The centre does not leave its past students to their own devices. If their parents have farms in the region, they may work on them while remaining financial members of the co-operative. Otherwise, they may be sent to various parts of the country, where they form groups for the development of farming and stock raising, and set up co-operatives on the lines of that operating at the centre.

The CNER has set up a centre of this type at Ilhabela on the coast of the state of São Paulo, another at Avaré, in the same state, and a third at Dianópolis in the state of Goiás. Each centre trains approximately fifteen groups to set up future co-operatives and carries out about thirty 'projects'.

Lastly, the CNER organizes guidance centres for rural monitresses, with the object of cultivating a sense of social responsibility in the girls of the community and thus bringing about an improvement in the way of life of rural populations.

The girls live in groups of five in cottages provided with the bare minimum of furniture. Gradually they decorate the interior, making furniture and utensils themselves. Round the house they plant a flower garden, a vegetable garden and an orchard, and build a fowl yard, rabbit hutches, etc.

Training is of a purely practical nature. The girls are given specific tasks, such as preparing meals, looking after the vegetable garden, bee keeping, preserving, interior and exterior decorating, sewing, etc. Guidance and advice are given at a central workshop, but the work is carried out in the most normal conditions possible, in the cottages themselves. The girls take part in running a model social centre. When they have completed their apprenticeship, the most gifted serve as liaison officers between the centre and former pupils. It is most important, indeed, that these monitresses

should feel that an interest is being taken in their work, especially during the first few years.

The CNER has been working since 1952 with the Assistência ao Litoral de Anchieta (ALA), whose headquarters are at Santos (São Paulo). This religious movement works for the betterment of the population of the whole coastal region. The CNER has since set up other guidance centres for rural monitresses, for example in the states of Ceará and Rio Grande do Norte.

FRENCH WEST AFRICA

Dahomey: A Fundamental Education Experiment Carried out by Africans

A crew of rover scouts from the *Scouts de France* Association, consisting of some twenty young Africans, most of them working at Porto-Novo (Dahomey), have, since November 1954, been carrying out a fundamental education experiment at Gbodje, a village with 400 inhabitants situated about half a mile from Porto-Novo.

Being familiar with the language, customs and mentality of the villagers, these scouts have been able to work out effective methods taking psychological factors into account.

They broke up into teams so as to keep in constant touch with the village and each took over responsibility for one particular job, such as literacy work, hygiene, agriculture or stock-breeding.

For the literacy campaign they built a school for 70 pupils between 6 and 12 years of age. The monitor, a rover scout, gives lessons for eight hours a day and lives on funds collected by the other scouts. Adults who are kept busy in the fields all day are given evening classes three times a week.

After a year, 40 out of 70 children are able to read fluently and to write; of the 200 adults in the evening class, 100, including the headman of the village, are able to read and write all the letters in the alphabet, make some attempt to write their own names, and can count up to 100.

So far as hygiene is concerned, the scouts give lectures on preventive medicine, dwelling on such matters as cleanliness of children, the body, clothing, the home and water. Persons who are ill make no protest about having themselves examined by the first-aid scout who comes to the village once a week. He attends to minor cases and persuades the more serious cases to have themselves examined at Porto-Novo. The scout mistress, Mehinto, who is a midwife, gives the women elementary instruction on the care of children.

A tractor-ploughed field two hectares in area is used for agricultural demonstration purposes. Part of the land was manured and the other part not, so as to make the villagers realize the productivity of regenerated land.

As a stimulus to cattle-breeding, a breeding-bull was presented to the villagers. In addition, pairs of turkeys were distributed for breeding purposes; the brood becomes the property of the breeder, but the parent turkeys are passed on to other breeders after a year. Thanks to the assistance of the Indigenous Provident Society, a model hen house was built; the scouts use it for raising imported fowls and teach the villagers how to care for them.

This fundamental education experiment thus achieves two aims; it raises the living standards of the rural population and brings home to young Africans from the towns their country's present lack of balance (gulf between the living standards of the more advanced urban population and that of practically all the countryfolk), at the same time giving them an opportunity of remedying the situation themselves.

Mauritania: Camp or Nomad Schools in Mauritania¹

The nomad schools, first established in 1949, have yielded valuable results and are constantly growing in number (this year there should be 25 or 26 such schools). Some of the children who have passed through them have gone on to secondary schools.

The little nomad school. A cupboard canteen, a small folding teacher's desk, a folding chair, two folding blackboards and folding desks, each for two pupils (their number varying according to the size of the school, which averages between 20 and 50 pupils), make up the furniture of a nomad school. It is light and portable, and when the camp moves it can all be loaded on the two camels in the school's possession. Once the school is set up, this furniture is carefully arranged in the school tent made of wood or jute. A curtain reaching to the ground is hung along all four sides of the tent to make an enclosed area of 25 to 30 square metres. The school is further closed off by a hedge of branches. When the school has two or three classes it has to have the same number of tents.

The little nomad school 'may be a large one'. The nomad school helps to increase school atten-

1. Report received from Sheikh Ul Mahand, head of the Nomad School at Ain-Salama (Butilimit) and published in *L'Éducation Africaine*, 44th year, No. 34, 1956.

dance in Mauritania, which is still not high enough, for most of the country's inhabitants are scattered among nomad camps a long way from any urban centre. This is the reason why it is so difficult each year to enrol children in the village schools. Some means therefore had to be found of reaching the nomad children whose parents live 30 or more miles away from the nearest village and are often reluctant to part with them; schools receiving such children are obliged to provide for their full upkeep. The nomad school, on the other hand, caters for several families in the same camp, with their tents clustering round the school tent. The pupils can be with their families as soon as school is over and thus feel far more at home than in the village school. Their education is the joint responsibility of the school and the family.

We must therefore emphasize that the camp school exerts an influence that can and must make it an important factor in adult education. Obviously it must contribute towards the education of all those living in its neighbourhood. They see the teacher making his way to work at the school each day at the same hour; they see the straw hut he has built for his home, the dressings he puts on the children when they hurt themselves and the way he always makes them keep clean. They also see the teacher's hurricane lamp for working in the evenings, the care he takes to keep the school ground tidy, and a host of other things probably unfamiliar to them before, from which each one of them can derive benefit.

GREECE

*Literacy Campaign for Women: an Experiment Conducted by the Greek League for Women's Rights*¹

In Greece, as in all the countries which suffered during World War II, a great effort has been made by the State to provide fundamental education for the young people who received no primary schooling during the hostilities. Evening classes have been held in most schools, and Greek primary school teachers, in addition to their regular work, have had to take over classes for young people between 14 and 20 years of age. The instruction is free, even for those who have passed the age of compulsory school attendance.

However, the problem of elementary schooling for all Greeks, particularly for women, cannot be solved merely by the organization of classes for young people.

For various reasons, political or economic (wars, destruction of buildings, shortage of schools, etc.), some of the older women in

Greece have not had an opportunity of attending school and find it difficult to join the classes for young people. These women, while possessing all the qualities needed to make excellent wives and mothers, may, now that they are taking part in the country's political life, prove an impediment to national progress, owing to their lack of formal education.

The Greek League for Women's Rights had this fact in mind when it decided to associate itself with the literacy campaign.

Since 1920, the League, which is affiliated with the International Alliance of Women, has been working for the emancipation of Greek women and for more satisfactory legislation concerning women, without, however, taking sides with any political party. Aware of the seriousness of the danger, it has set out to improve the education of women voters.

Several other women's organizations have been working along the same lines, but the League has introduced a slightly different method from that generally adopted in schools. To train educated persons for the difficult task of monitors, it published, in 7,000 copies, and distributed free of charge a 40-page booklet providing all the necessary information.

This booklet stresses the great national importance of the literacy campaign and goes on to describe modern systems of elementary instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic for adults.

At the same time, an appeal was addressed to all educated Greeks, to encourage them to take part in this literacy 'crusade'. Each was requested to seek out an illiterate woman in his own circle and make himself responsible for her education, endeavouring to arrange the lessons to fit in with her working hours.

A decree of the Ministry of Education has recommended the aforesaid concise, methodical booklet to all organizations and institutions, and the Holy Synod has also given it its support. Primary school inspectors and municipal and other government officials have arranged for its circulation.

The results have been fairly satisfactory, judging from the letters written by teachers expressing their congratulations and gratitude and from the requests the League has received for the despatch of the booklet.

INDIA

Youth Federations

The local affiliates of the World Federation of Democratic Youth in India are increasing

1. Note supplied by Mrs. Virg. Zannas, Vice-President.

their efforts to combat illiteracy. In Kumbharar (Bihar) youth organizations have issued an appeal to the surrounding area and collected 10,000 bricks and 10,000 rupees as well as 5 acres of land for a school to be built by the voluntary labour of young workers. Kalikata Yuba Sangha, a youth organization in Bengal, has recruited students to teach in schools for young adults in the workers' colonies around Calcutta.

The Andhra Youth Federation has tackled another aspect of the problem of illiteracy. Its members have helped to prepare a syllabus suitable for the older young people whose thirst for knowledge is great and who wish to learn as quickly as possible to read newspapers and write letters. The federation prepared a syllabus for a six months' course for teaching young adults to read and write simple sentences. In addition, the syllabus contains lectures on national history, geography and current affairs. The federation also published several well-illustrated booklets on these subjects in the local language.

JAPAN

Health Fair Organized by YWCA

As one of its fiftieth anniversary projects, the Young Women's Christian Association of Japan organized a Health Fair in order to arouse public concern for health education and to disseminate information on health from birth to old age.

Public attention was focused on a special photographic exhibition on 30 aspects of health chosen by a committee of members of the YWCA physical education specialists, medical

advisers and officials from the Ministry of Welfare. Financial assistance was forthcoming from firms, such as life insurance companies and pharmacies having a special concern for health. The photo panels were first exhibited in a Tokyo department store for six days. Then the exhibition was taken to 10 different cities where the YWCA Health Fair was organized in co-operation with medical associations, parent-teachers' association, health centres or boards of education.

In addition to the exhibition, in each city there were various activities such as counselling services on baby care, mental hygiene, tuberculosis and dental hygiene. Lecture series were held on youth problems, cancer, health problems of working women and good grooming.

Round table discussions included: hygiene for middle-aged women, hygiene for children, healthy living for college students, and films on health education, parasites, and painless child birth were shown. There were cooking demonstration classes on how to prepare food for babies, children and expectant mothers; and the Red Cross demonstrated first aid techniques.

One smaller exhibition showed suitable toys for each age group of babies and children. The recreational programme included folk dancing, callisthenics and games.

Over 318,000 people saw the photographic exhibition; and nearly 17,000 attended one or more of the other activities. Over 1,500 members of the YWCA accepted some responsibility for carrying out the project. The Health Fair not only drew attention to health problems but also informed the public about the community medical and social institutions equipped to deal with these problems.

UNESCO NOTES

The Ninth Conference of Organizers of International Voluntary Work Camps was convened by Unesco from 6 to 9 March at the Ecole Nationale de Ski et d'Alpinisme at Chamonix, France.

Sixty participants from 17 countries were present from 36 organizations sponsoring work camps.

As a result of the discussion of the Working Party on 'the Preparation of Leaders for Fundamental Education Camps', the conference recommended that Unesco publish a comprehensive study of the particular contribution of work camps to fundamental education. The conference also voted to continue publication of *Work Camps and Fundamental Education*, a

mimeographed bulletin giving information about current youth projects dealing with various aspects of fundamental education.

The conference approved plans for a training project for Work Camp Methods and Techniques to be organized in October at Kangheriashram, near Bangalore, South India by the Co-ordination Committee for International Voluntary Work Camps with the assistance of Unesco. A local committee made up of representatives of 10 Indian organizations sponsoring work camps is in charge of local arrangements.

According to statistics published by the committee, in 1955 over 80,000 young people assisted in manual labour projects related to

village development schemes in India. Another 2,000 young people did social, educational and medical work with migrant workers and minority groups or in governmental and voluntary fundamental education projects.

GIFT COUPONS

Among the information materials now being distributed by Unesco's Public Liaison Division, is the first in a series of information manuals entitled: *What is Unesco?* This is a 59-page brochure covering the basic organization and activities of Unesco. It is available on request from this division.

Responsibilities for promotion of the Gift Coupon Programme are maintained by the Public Liaison Division, formerly Unesco's Division of Voluntary International Assistance. A newly revised project list has been developed for the coming campaign of Gift Coupon promotion, and 20 fundamental and adult education projects are included in this list, representing most aspects of Unesco's Programme.

Information about the Gift Coupon Plan or any specific projects may also be obtained by writing to the Public Liaison Division.

AID TO NATIONAL OR REGIONAL SEMINARS FOR ADULT ART EDUCATION

As foreseen in the programme for the promotion of Adult Education through the Arts, three seminars, in Sweden, the German Federal Republic and Poland, will deal with the methods adopted in industrial and rural areas of these Member States for encouraging the participation of adults in the practice and appreciation of the arts.

The Swedish seminar for Adult Arts Education will be held at Ideröd, near Ystad, in June, the German seminar at Haltern-am-See, in July, on the occasion of the Ruhrfestspiele in Recklinghausen. The third seminar is expected to be held in Warsaw during the second semester of this year. Experts of all three Member States will prepare survey-reports on adult arts education methods in their respective countries and will attend each seminar. Participants from other countries have been invited to deliver supplementary reports. The material collected will be revised and issued by Unesco as an illustrated publication on Adult Arts Education.

THE UNESCO RESEARCH CENTRE ON THE SOCIAL IMPLICATIONS OF INDUSTRIALIZATION IN SOUTHERN ASIA

After Unesco at its Eighth General Conference had approved the project of establishing a

research centre to deal with the social problems of industrialization in Southern Asia, consultations were held with the Governments of South and South-East Asian Member States which culminated in a meeting held in New Delhi, in September 1955. The meeting was attended by representatives of Afghanistan, Burma, Ceylon, India, Indonesia, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Thailand, and the Malaya-British Borneo group of Associate Member States, and recommendations were presented to Unesco regarding the organization of the centre. Representatives of the UN, FAO, ILO, WHO, the International Social Science Council and other organizations also attended. The representative from India confirmed the offer of his Government to make a financial contribution and also stated that a suitable building for the Centre had been found at Calcutta. This offer was gratefully accepted by Unesco, and on 1 January 1956, the Centre was established at Calcutta.

The object of research. The field of research is a wide one, because the influences of industrialization—direct and indirect—are so important and so varied that to obtain a true picture of the implications will require the utilization of all the social sciences. In the minds of most people these influences are all too often connected only with the undesirable consequences of industrialization—over-crowding, maladjustments, increase in crime, etc. The desirable influences—higher levels and standards of living, relief for overcrowded rural areas, better education, better health services, etc., are often overlooked.

The Organization of the Centre. The centre will analyse these influences, both direct and indirect, and investigate how the situation has developed, especially in Asian countries. Careful inquiries will be made as to what research has already been carried out and what projects are being planned. For this purpose, the centre will rely on correspondents in each country to give information on research and they in their turn, will receive from the centre information regarding other countries. This will enable research workers to get in touch with each other, to co-ordinate their work and compare methods and findings. The Documentation Service of the centre will thus have an important part to play, and it is hoped that it will become a useful instrument for research workers both within the region and outside. The centre itself will not only receive information from countries of the region but, via its sister institution, in Paris, the Research Bureau on the Social Implica-

tions of Technological Change, it will also receive data on research in various other countries and will distribute it in the South-Asian region.

It is planned that a library will be established to support the research to be carried out by the centre and to provide, for research workers in the field, data derived from existing literature.

Methods of research. The research should be carried out by social scientists of different disciplines so as to obtain a clear and realistic picture of the social situation. It is hoped that such an interdisciplinary research team will at the same time represent different cultures and university backgrounds so as to level out possible biases in approach. The investigations planned by the centre will always be undertaken in co-operation with a research institute or a university in the country where the work will be carried out in order to profit fully from the knowledge and experience gained by local social scientists. The research reports prepared by the centre will, for the most part, be published.

The centre will also assist research in the region carried out by other institutions by

sending a specialist in any discipline which may not have been far developed in the country concerned.

Regional Centre. An advisory committee consisting of social scientists representing the countries of the region will meet from time to time to discuss specific research projects proposed by the participating countries and to recommend the priorities to be adopted by the centre in planning its research. Between sessions, a small steering committee will advise the director who will have the final responsibility for the work of the centre under the Director-General of Unesco. The results of research will be sent to the universities and research institutes in the region in the same way as the information on documentation and will be processed and classified so as to make it possible to despatch them on cards.

The information collected will be distributed to the fullest possible extent to the countries participating in this project, and it is hoped that all countries of the region will find the work of the centre useful.

Correspondence with the centre should be addressed to P.O. Box 242, Calcutta.

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